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ABSTRACT

The five bibliographies included here were selected from those of a graduate-level class in methodology for teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL). They were selected based on the quality of research and writing, interest the topic might have for other English-as-a-second-language teachers, and student permission. They include: "TESL Methodology for Teaching English Writing to the Deaf" (Elizabeth Antoun); "A Teacher's Examination: Ways To Improve Students' Reading Comprehension" (Geraldine Gutwein); "The Internet for Second/Foreign Language Education" (Won-Hyeong Kim); "Beyond the Red Pen: An Annotated Bibliography on Teacher Feedback Issues" (Jennifer E. Staben); and "Learning Strategies and Styles" (Aimee York). (MSE)

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TESOL Methodology: Five Annotated Bibliographies

Elizabeth Antoun, Jerry G. Gebhard, Geraldine Gutwein, Won-Hyeong Kim, Jennifer Staben, Aimee York

An Introduction
by Jerry G. Gebhard

The five bibliographies included in this set were written by English Department graduate students (MA and Ph.D.) at Indiana University of Pennsylvania who were studying in a course, TESL/TEFL Methodology (EN 740). The course is designed to survey current theory and practice in teaching English to non-native speakers and includes traditional and innovative ways of teaching language skills at various educational levels, as well as research on the teaching and learning of English as a second language.

Students entered the course with a variety of experiences, including some who are experienced English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers in a variety of countries, some with extensive English as a Second Language (ESL) teaching experience, and others with no teaching experience at all. Some of the students had extensive experience as students in graduate programs and were studying in our Ph.D. Rhetoric and Linguistics program. Others had less graduate school experience and were earning an MA degree in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) or an MA Generalist degree. Students came from a variety of cultural backgrounds as well.

As a part of the course requirements, students were expected to select a topic of interest relevant to TESL/TEFL methodology, research this topic, narrow the topic, create a thesis, and write an annotated bibliography based on this thesis which was to include15-18 items. I asked the students to write the annotations in an informal way, discussing each item in the bibliography as it relates to the thesis. I also encouraged them to go beyond articles and books and to include resources from the internet, interviews, conference presentations they attended, and other relevant content.

I selected the five bibliographies from a class set of twenty-three based on the quality of research and writing, the interest the topic might have for other ESL/EFL teachers, and the students' permission to publish his or her work in this set. Here are the five bibliographies in this set:

1. TESL Methodology for Teaching English Writing to the Deaf by Elizabeth Antoun (MA Generalist)
2. A Teacher's Examination: Ways to Improve Students' Reading Comprehension by Geraldine Gutwein (Ph.D. Rhetoric and Linguistics)
3. The Internet for Second/Foreign Language Education by Won-Hyeong Kim (MA TESOL)
4. Beyond the Red Pen: An Annotated Bibliography on Teacher Feedback Issues by Jennifer E. Staben (Ph.D. Rhetoric and Linguistics)
5. Learning Strategies and Styles by Aimee York (MA TESOL)

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Dr. Jerry Gebhard

Annotated Bibliography: TESL Methodology for Teaching English Writing to the Deaf

Elizabeth Antoun

EN 740
Dr. Jerry G. Gebhard
18 November 1998

A small but steady deaf population enrolls at Community College of Allegheny County, drawn perhaps by the open admissions policy and the rumor that there is a support for them there. Generally these students are placed in developmental English and reading classes and instructors often come to the Office of Supportive Services, frustrated and wanting very much to help these students but not really knowing how.

Thesis: There are effective methods to be learned from TESL practice for teaching English writing to the deaf within the limitations of a community college setting.

Albertini, John A. (1990). Coherence in deaf students' writing. In Joy Kreeft Peyton (Ed.) Students and teachers writing together:perspectives on journal writing (pp.127-136).Alexandria, Virginia:TESOL.

Albertini focuses on language objectivity as a developmental phenomenon and the relationship it has with coherence and organization. In this article he describes the "given new contract" which is the expectation that the writer will generally present old information before new. Such a pattern results in faster comprehension and faster and more accurate recall. This principle is illustrated with some scientific articles, then with some sample journal writings from deaf students. Random student journal entries followed "given new contract" pattern. Albertini suggests and illustrates teacher journal response which, through skillful

questioning, assists students in following that pattern and therefore improving coherence. In all examples, student writing still included a high degree of surface anomalies but coherence could still be addressed. This article is particularly valuable in demonstrating the use of journals to achieve a specific and focused end. An instructor could very deliberately taylor journal responses to shape the writer's coherence.

Albertini, John A., Meath-Lang, Bonnie, & Harris, David P. (1994). Voice as muse, message, and medium: The views of deaf college students. In K. B. Yancey (Ed.), Voices on Voice: Perspectives, Definitions, Inquiry (pp. 172-190) Urbana:National Council of Teachers of English.

These three authors used the following prompt with a group of twenty deaf college students and one deaf colleague:

Voice

Many people talk about something called "voice" in a person's writing. They say that writing has a voice. Some writers talk about hearing a voice; others talk about finding a voice. What does voice mean to you? What do you think voice might be?

From the responses, three themes were identified: that of inner voice or speech, or *muse*, that of feelings or knowledge to communicate, or *message*, and that of personality and writing style, or *medium*. Although writing about voice seemed a difficult task for these students, it proved to be reasonable. As a group, their definitions of voice spanned the range of definitions in the writing literature. The authors conclude that students associate voice with dialogue, including inner dialogue, and with expression of personality and

regard it as a necessary component of personal writing. This study is of interest to me because the prompt seemed to encourage metacognition in the respondents and made possible a pedagogical loop which connects the three notions of voice, beginning with voice as muse, which encourages students to listen to their inner selves, then moving to voice as message and medium where they consider what they have to say and how they say it. One of the authors writes that the voice metaphor appears to be "sufficiently robust" to be quite meaningful to these students, making this task useful to the instructor as a pedagogical tool and to the students as a means of learning about themselves as writers and communicators. Another sees it as an affirmation of claims that the low levels of literacy of deaf students as measured on standardized tests fails to reflect the cultural importance or the actual use of literacy among the deaf.

Bond, Minyon Mickie (1995). Have you ever seen a voice talking...well, I have! Paper presented at the Annual International Conference of the National Institute for Staff and Organizational Development on Teaching Excellence and Conference of Administrators (17th, Austin, TX, May 21-25, 1995) (Eric Document Reproduction Service No. ED387 176)

Bond presents some of the problems she encountered and strategies she used when five deaf students and five ESL students registered for one section of her Plants and Society course. Her class includes a lot of written work, and she quickly discovered the deaf students' poor written English proficiency. Two areas are of particular interest to me here. One is that these students experienced success when they

were separated in lab groups with hearing students, including the international students, even though the interpreter could not serve each group at once. Instead the deaf students relied on other means of communication, such as written notes and miming. Interested fellow students learned finger spelling and some sign. I see this as an excellent illustration of the power of authentic communication in second language acquisition. The second is that, as an outgrowth of her interest in these students, this instructor designed and supervised a 1 credit internet independent study for deaf students. Her rational, based on her experience with writing across the curriculum and her biology class experience, was that the internet would provide reading and writing opportunities in the areas of their interest, whatever they might be, and would support their English language development. Internet addresses of particular interest to the deaf are included.

Cannon, Beverly & Polio, Charlene (1989). An analysis of input and interaction in the dialogue journals of deaf community college students. Teaching English to Deaf and Second Language Students, 7 (1)12-21.

The research study described in this article was conducted to determine how a hearing instructor modifies English used in dialogue journals of deaf students, to what extent the instructor's writing is adjusted to their varying levels of proficiency, in what ways deaf community college students initially use English in dialogue journals, and what change occurs in student use of English over time. Journals

of twelve deaf students and one hearing student were used. Excerpts illustrate the range of proficiency of the students. The least proficient student's journal was almost unreadable, including daunting spelling and syntax errors. The instructor wrote back to the student, framing a series of questions which attempted to clarify the student's message and provide the language needed. After three exchanges, the students' message became clear enough to understand. Not surprisingly, the authors found that the syntactic complexity of instructors writing increased with the perceived level of student level of proficiency. Twice as many questions were used in responses to deaf student writing than to the hearing student's writing, many of them yes/no questions. More communication devices (rephrasing, expansions, redundancies, definitions, comprehensions checks, clarifications requests, and modeling) were used with the deaf students. Student journal writing skills were not necessarily commensurate with academic writing skills. The variation of the complexity of the instructor's responses seems to be akin to the adjustments native speakers of spoken languages intuitively make in dialogue with non-native speakers. The study shows that even students with little proficiency and limited experience using English communicatively can become more sophisticated in their interactions by using dialogue journals which can promote a sense of audience and an awareness of turn-taking, questioning, answering, commenting, and initiating, skills that are basic to effective

communication. The fact that this study took place at a community college is of great interest to me, as was inclusion of students of minimal proficiency levels. The emphasis of the journals as communication devices was different in this classroom from many of the others I have read about in that there was no attempt to tie these assignments in with academic writing; to some extent, the journals seemed to substitute for conversational exchanges that might occur in a speaking/listening lesson in an ESL classroom.

Hanson, Vicki L & Padden, Carol A. (1989). Interactive video for bilingual ASL/English instruction of deaf children. American Annals of the Deaf, 134, 209-213.

A project is described in this article which makes use of computers to present video instructional material for student directed learning. The focus here is on written English and the target population is students fluent in ASL. The equipment allows for a story to be written in English shown, via videotape, in sign. Students were able to choose several options, which include simply watching a person sign the material, watching and reading English simultaneously, answering questions about piece in English, writing a piece themselves and captioning a story, in which students write English captions for ASL segments. Students and teachers used this system throughout a five month period. Little interaction is required prior to student use of the materials, as most of the students were comfortable with the computer and the program is self explanatory. Most of the students worked alone or in pairs. These materials do not

lend themselves to large group work or, according to the author, work in a large classroom. The seems to me to be material that might be appropriate for supplemental work for a writing class, perhaps introduced and supported by a tutor. If CCAC had such materials, I think they should be placed where a number of students have access to them.

Humphries, Tom, Martin, Bette, & Coye, Terry (1989). A bilingual, bicultural approach to teaching English (How two hearies and a deafie got together to teach English). In S. Wilcox (Ed.), American Deaf Culture (pp. 121-143). Burtonsville, MD:Linstok Press.

This article focuses on the importance of resolving cultural conflicts between the deaf and hearing cultures in the English classroom. The authors used a team teaching approach in the class described here. All three teachers know ASL and one is deaf. They used both ASL and English to communicate with each other in the classroom and with the students. Eleven objectives are identified beyond that of helping students acquire as much English as possible. They include establishing an understanding of two separate and equal languages and cultures, breaking down student views of themselves as language inferiors and helpless, encouraging students to ask for help and to view teachers and students as co-learners. There is a strong affective element to this program. An approach which requires a dedicated class to deaf students and specialized teachers does not seem practical for CCAC currently, where the deaf population is too small to support it, but does has application for a summer transition

program, where specialized staff can be hired and the affective traditionally plays a very important part. Some of the methodology used, however, could be adapted to a tutoring or auto-tutorial session in support of regular classes. These teachers used ASL to teach English. For example, they drew comparisons between written English sentences and English glosses of ASL sentences in order to teach expressed time contexts (ASL does not use inflectional endings). They experimented with word order in both languages. They also used two sets of videotapes to teach English vocabulary and idioms. In these, ASL signs are given English translations, then three or four example sentences are given for both the ASL vocabulary item and the English translation. Students reacted strongly and favorably to the videotapes. Students in this class set their own English language objectives in consultation with a teacher and used peers as well as teachers for language consultation. Teachers found the team teaching approach dynamic and creative.

Isaacson, Stephen L. & Luckner, John L. (1988) A model for teaching written language to hearing impaired students. Teaching English to Deaf and Second Language Students, 6 (1), 8-14.

This article, which essentially reviews composition theory and examines it in the light of the deaf student's needs, includes several useful suggestions. Sentence combining exercises are suggested as a way of dealing with the serious syntax problems the deaf often have. Teachers are urged to address vocabulary development directly; often the deaf have not developed schemata that include a variety of

words to discuss the same topic. Synonyms for overused words can be taught by using passages in which several words are underlined. Students replace the overused underlined words for the synonyms they have learned. To assist with development of content the authors recommend group interaction activities. For instance, student participate in "active listening" during which they respond to a student paper by paraphrasing the ideas, then, the author can evaluate his or her own effectiveness. Several suggestions for instructional approaches are made which are universally applicable to writing students. Some of these, such as providing process models to allow students to observe experienced language users interacting with the printed word, are especially critical for the deaf. Teachers are advised to model prewriting, assist students with producing a vocabulary list for a given assignment, and demonstrate transcribing activities so that students can learn how to translate prewriting and planning documents into drafts. Teachers who use *probing*, or asking a student six or seven additional questions about a passage he is writing, improve the quality of written composition significantly. Small group problem centered activities are an effective way of allowing students to work on sentence level problems with peers. The methods the authors advocate are familiar ones to most writing teachers; the emphasis is somewhat different for teaching the deaf.

Lieberth, Ann K. (1988) Teaching functional writing via telephone. Perspectives For Teachers of the Hearing Impaired 7 (1) 10-13.

This project paired hearing impaired students with student teachers through the use of the TTY (Teletypewriter) in order to improve very specific English skills based on a preliminary analysis of the students' written English. The student teacher examined the writing sample of a partner and chose three language structures that were either underdeveloped or misused. These were targets for conversation. For example, a teacher might target the use of auxiliary-plus-verb construction and subject-verb agreement. The pairs would have two half-hour conversations using TTY each week. During each conversation the student teacher used specific strategies to give the hearing impaired student practice in using one of the targeted language structures and to demonstrate correct use of the structure. The student teacher used examples to correct other structures that were in error. Grammar was not taught directly, only indirectly, by modeling. This project had the added advantage of giving the participants practice in using the TTY and in the use of casual social conversation with a hearing person. The method has appeal to me because it makes use of non-specialists and a readily available technology. It would provide some variety and opportunity for spontaneous conversation without the use of an interpreter. Tutors might enjoy this approach.

Livingston, Sue. (1989 March). Revision strategies of deaf students writers. American Annals of the Deaf, 134, 21-26.

This article describes a study which examined teacher commentary on deaf student's drafts during written conferences and the quality of the revision that followed in order to learn how particular kinds of comments from teachers effect the frequency and nature of student revision. Teachers most frequently asked questions which requested more specific information to fill gaps in the paper, but students responded more frequently to questions requesting clarification of a statement and most often to suggestions for specific revisions. The best papers had been given more revisions, more types of revisions, more surface revisions, more additions and substitution revisions and more teacher initiated revisions. As with hearing writers, the willingness to change what has been written in first drafts is an important element of producing good work. Teacher questions requesting more basic information from students were generally sentence specific instead of discourse based, missing the opportunity to aid students in seeing revision as a global rethinking of the text. When teachers wrote comments directly on a draft in lieu of a conference, revision was not as effective; students did not understand teacher comment and teachers often could not resist correcting grammar on the drafts. The application here is obvious: the skillful use of a conference, which fits easily into what is already

being done at CCAC, is especially important to students who might not understand the margin comments on a draft.

Meath-Lang, Bonnie. (1990). The dialogue journal: reconceiving curriculum and teaching. in Joy Kreeft Peyton (Ed.) Students and teachers writing together:perspectives on journal writing (pp.5-17).Alexandria, Virginia:TESOL.

In this article, Meath-Lang extends the concern for a tendency to rely on "default" assumptions, the heart of gender and sexism issues in language, to the arena of teaching language to special groups. Throughout the 1970's the reconceptualist movement redefined curriculum as beginning with the individual and his or her world. The dialogue journal, is an ideal medium to allow reflection and feedback which can be used for curricular revision.

Meath-Lang uses three dialogue journal exchanges of students and teachers to show how effectively this method can be used to question and/or affirm assumptions held about education. Of significance is that Meath-Langs work is at Rochester Institute of Technology at the National Technical Institute for the Deaf, making these journal exchanges an important direct route of communication between student and teacher.

The first student entry is from a student who is just discovering that she can control the writing process. The writer, who is a prelingually deaf student in a class of 16, can be given immediate and personal feedback by her instructor with the use of this tool. The second entry shows that the distance that one might

assume is given to a teacher by virtue of authority can be removed with a dialogue journal, and although it is possible to limit the use of the journals to class content if a teacher is uncomfortable with intrusion in personal interests and values, this entry is an excellent example of a skillful handling of such a situation. The third entry brings Meath-Lang into confrontation with some of her own default assumptions which she then must deal with in her response.

This article is particularly attractive to me because it shows the power dialogue journals have in engaging all students in the written word. Students who are invested in what they want to say become more fluent writers. For deaf students, the opportunity to communicate with the instructor in a manner free of evaluation is especially significant.

Myers, Sharon. (1997). Teaching writing as a process and teaching sentence level syntax: reformulation as ESL composition feedback. TESL-EJ,2 (4). <http://www.writing.berkeley.edu/tesl-ej/ejo8/a2.html> (1998, October 20).

Meyers makes important distinctions between using the process approach with L1 writers versus L2. One important difference is the syntactic problems L2 students often have. The reconstruction and reformulation method seeks to address this. The object of reformulation is to free the text from glaring syntax problems. Five markings are used to replace the extensive symbol system often used by composition teachers. They are ^ to mean "add"; ( ) to mean "omit"; > to mean "indent"; ? to mean "mystery"; and / to mean

"separate." The teacher corrects the texts using these, and students rewrite them, attending to sentence level problems. Clean copies are duplicated and circulated throughout the class; students record comments about them. Discussion follows. Discussion and commentary can focus on content since syntax problems have been eliminated from consideration. Myers makes the point that L2 students frequently want to address problems with grammar and syntax and the traditional process approach does not treat them adequately. Feedback using this method is absolute individualized and immediately applied. Students are freed to focus on content. I am particularly interested in this article because it seems to propose a systematic and comprehensive way to deal with the diverse and profound syntax and grammar problems deaf students present in their compositions. These students ask questions about the errors they make, requesting explanation and trying to make sense of them. Endless explanations of detailed grammar rules do not work. Perhaps this kind of modeling would.

Peyton, Joy Kreeft (1990). Dialogue journal writing and the acquisition of English grammatical morphology. in Joy Kreeft Peyton (Ed.) Students and teachers writing together:perspectives on journal writing (pp.51-62).Alexandria, Virginia:TESOL.

Peyton uses cross-sectional and longitudinal approaches in this study of five ESL students to focus on four areas: whether or not there is evidence of language acquisition for basic ESL learners using a method as unstructured as a dialogue journal, whether gains can be

plotted, what acquisition patterns appear in these journals and how they relate to pattern acquisition in speech, and whether patterns are particular to individual students. She found that there was marked progress in the learning and use of some forms and not in others, parallel to what has been found in those who learn language orally. Morphemes which are syllabic tend to be acquired more quickly, although this is not always so. When rules are easily learned for the use of syllabic morphemes they are acquired readily in a naturalistic setting, but those for which the rules are more difficult to learn, such as the use of articles, are not as readily learned using either oral or written natural language. Those morphemes that are not syllabic, such as plurals and possessives, are acquired more slowly. Peyton feels that editing methods have to be taught to address error in these areas. She found considerable individual variation in student acquisition processes, but as much of this appeared to be a part of first language transfer, a study of ASL first language speakers would have to be undertaken to further explore these differences. However, Peyton emphasizes the importance of recognition of individual variation among students, something the dialogue journal addresses especially well. I am particularly interested in the study, limited as it is, because of its linkage of journal writing and grammar acquisition. Peyton's work suggests that dialogue journals can be used effectively and fruitfully with students with little mastery English forms and structures and can allow

English morphology to be acquired in a naturalistic manner not available to the deaf through conversation.

Vanett, Lauren & Jurich, Donna (1990). A context for collaboration: teachers and students writing together. in Joy Kreeft Peyton (Ed.) Students and teachers writing together:perspectives on journal writing (pp.51-62).Alexandria, Virginia:TESOL.

In this article Vanett and Jurich describe the class they teach called Writing for Fluency which has personal journal writing at its core. Students in the class write three journal writings a week, all based on their personal stories. During the last quarter of the course the focus shifts to more academic writing. The emphasis of this article is the authors' belief that their writing along with the students is integral to the success of the course. They responded to student journal entries and also wrote to one assignment a week, which they distributed to the class. Students were able to see the teachers as individuals with strengths and weaknesses outside of the writing class. Teachers experienced what it was like to complete assignments they had assigned. This amount of writing exchange also established what the authors describe as an "appropriate level of intimacy in the classroom." Their writing set a tone for the task so that they were able to avoid casting themselves as therapists or counselors. The article includes journal writings from both instructors in which they reflect on their thoughts and feelings after the first semester of using this method and a summary of student reactions to the class, which

were generally positive, as they reported that the teachers writings, beyond serving as models, were motivating.

The authors conclude that that by writing with the class they become collaborators, and students learn to understand writing as communication. By writing autobiographically the classroom became more democratic. Students came to understand the importance of audience in their writing. Finally, by writing with the students they increased their awareness of their own writing process and became more involved with students and curriculum.

Vanett, Lauren & Jurich, Donna. (1990). The missing link: connecting journal writing to academic writing. in Joy Kreeft Peyton (Ed.) Students and teachers writing together:perspectives on journal writing (pp.23-33).Alexandria, Virginia:TESOL.

Vanett and Jurich present a rationale and method for using personal journal writing in a writing class which has academic writings as the goal by addressing three concerns that are often voiced regarding their use in such classes: the convention of teaching rhetorical modes in such classes, the loss of audience in journal writing, and possible reticence on the part of the students to write about personal life. They identify as the greatest barrier to students who wish to become successful writers "gaining familiarity and relatively easy access to the whole process of producing ideas on paper(25). Personal journal writing is a way to allow students to practice writing process using topics which are highly motivating and of interest to them, which do not require outside research, and over which they have some

creative control. Although conventional writing texts are often organized by rhetorical mode, the authors have developed a method of using journal writing so that the rhetorical modes emerge from the content of the journals. The journal writing process is highly interactive in order to avoid the problems that occur when writers do not have to consider audience. Teachers respond to student entries, some entries are shared with other students, and teachers respond along with students. Finally, the topics are broad enough that students are able to write about their lives without including expression of feelings or experiences they do not wish to share.

Specific examples are used to show how journal topics can lead into academic assignments. A journal assignment called "Dialogue with a Person from the Past" is used to lead into the writing of an argumentative paper. By writing both sides of a dialogue students gain experience at looking at both sides of an argument. Other activities are developed from the journal writings, including using excerpts to look at sentence structure, logical organization, transitions, and paragraph development. These ideas are particularly appealing because they sound as though they would work in almost any classroom, and the emphasis on development of journal writings into rhetorical modes would allow much lead in to the assignments in written form.

Walworth, Margaret (1990). Interactive teaching of reading: a model. in Joy Kreeft Peyton (Ed.) Students and teachers writing together:perspectives on journal writing (pp.37-47).Alexandria, Virginia:TESOL.

In this article a strategy for using content centered dialogue journals to teach reading to the deaf is described. Dialogue journals have the advantage of allowing the student to use language to discuss what is being read with whatever understanding he or she has at that moment; unlike a test or paper there is room to explore and be "wrong." In addition, Walworth sees the dialogue journal as a means to carry on a conversation in the target language in a way that simply cannot be done orally. She introduces dialogue journals to the students with a handout which she distributed during the first class. It explains that two entries a week will be required which must be related to the book being read in class. The teacher responds to each journal entry that is submitted.

Walworth discusses interactive reading theory which places the reader in the center on instruction and are thought to be more effective than simple bottom-up or top-down methods. Interactive instruction makes reading a simultaneous top-down and bottom-up activity. She discusses some of the problems involved for deaf students in four factors which contribute to reading comprehension: decoding fluency, considerate texts, compatibility of the reader's knowledge and text content, and the active strategies the reader employs to enhance understanding and circumvent failure of

comprehension. She also discusses the concept of schema which is relevant to all four of those areas. Schemata are the devices a reader uses to organize knowledge into units that can be understood. When reading comprehension occurs, information is incorporated into what the reader already knows.

The article includes examples of student/teacher exchanges with two students. In the first case the teacher guided the reader to reconsider some assumptions and erroneous interpretations bu through journal response but managed to avoid overt correction. The student was able to reinterpret the text when he was encouraged to continue with the comparison he was making and discovered other meaning. In the second example the student, whose reading abilities were somewhat limited, was nevertheless able to activate schema and bring understanding to the text. The problem of interpretation of text is a large one at CCAC, as all writing courses are reading based. The use of a journal such as this one would allow for individualized work with those students with especially serious problems in reading.

A teacher's examination: Ways to improve students' reading comprehension

Geraldine Gutwein

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

EN 740
November 18, 1998

A teacher's examination: Ways to improve students' reading comprehension

I have been teaching developmental reading at the community college level for seven years. During this time, I have encountered many students in my classes who have been through the ESL Program at the College. It is the College's policy that students who have completed the ESL sequence must take the appropriate reading course which is designed for native speakers. Each semester I am concerned about whether I am meeting the needs of the ESL students in my classes. As a result, my research is focused on ways to teach reading comprehension to ESL students who are placed in a developmental reading class with native speakers.

As I researched my topic, I began to realize that many of the approaches discussed were approaches that I could successfully implement in my reading classes without a major upheaval in my current methodological practices. These strategies would not only benefit my ESL students, but most likely would benefit the native speakers in my classes. By researching this topic, I was given the opportunity to reflect, examine, question, and validate my current practices.

Martino, M., & Block, E. (1992). Let them read books. College ESL 2 (2), 2-20.

In the article by Martino and Block they advocate the practice of giving students extended reading opportunities by having them read books. I found the article quite interesting and important. It was interesting because it provided a discussion of why they believe textbooks in reading classes are not sufficient materials to practice real reading experiences for students. It was important because it provided a discussion of how extended reading can improve students' reading on many levels including comprehension.

The authors believe that through giving students opportunities to read extended text, teachers are actually providing opportunities for students to realize: that readers make decisions when they read, that meaning resides in the reader, and that the reader can learn from the text. By assigning longer readings readers are "allowed to develop their own schema from the materials of the book." Through extensive reading, students become familiar with the ability to predict, and to experience the author's use of language and vocabulary, and to develop comprehension.

The model proposes using at least three or four full books in a semester. Before actually assigning the books, the teacher models questioning techniques. The purpose of modeling questioning techniques is to get the students to understand that questioning is part of reading. The lesson provides an opportunity for students to realize that the reading process involves "questioning, predicting, and monitoring understanding." In addition, students are asked to write responses in journals, keep a double-entry notebook, and hold small group discussions.

I found the article useful in that it validates my approach in my reading classes. Additionally, the model provides an approach that incorporates questioning. I need to

provide my students more opportunities to question the text in order to facilitate comprehension.

Winer, L., & Benson, S. (1997). Stepping stones: Guided questioning in teaching reading comprehension. College ESL 7 (1), 35-47.

Winer and Benson discuss the use of "stepping stones' which is similar to scaffolding instruction. According to the article, scaffolding is a form of "collaborative instruction in which an instructor guides the learner to a problem solution, realization, or task completion beyond the learner's capacity to do independently." Winer and Benson state that scaffolding techniques require: that it provides a collaborative context between learner and teacher, that it occur in the learners' "zone of proximal development," and that it is a gradual process of withdrawing teacher support. The "stepping stones" approach is one in which the teacher guides questioning in discussion in order to provide students with clues and choices to comprehend, and infer a longer text. Winer and Benson illustrate the "stepping stones" approach by citing their experiences in using the novel To Kill A Mockingbird in their ESOL class as the teacher applied guided questioning in order to assist the students in comprehending the text. In addition, they increase students' background knowledge through the use of teacher explanation, pictures, maps, videos, and guest lectures.

The "stepping stones" approach to guided questioning can be useful in developing students' comprehension and ability to infer while they are reading a longer text. I could apply this approach to my class discussions. However, I do believe a teacher needs to exercise caution. The possibility could arise that the teacher makes students too dependent on his/her questioning and doesn't move to the final step of eventually withdrawing teacher support. In addition, the teacher could privilege his/her

own interpretation through the way questions are asked. If the ultimate goal of guided questioning is to facilitate a students' ability to comprehend a longer text, then I believe it can be a useful teaching strategy if a teacher uses it to monitor students' comprehension.

Langer, J. (1981). Pre-reading plan (PReP): facilitating text comprehension. In L. Chapman (Ed.). The reader and the text (pp. 125-130). London: Heineman Educational Books.

Langer proposes a 3-step plan to assess students' prior knowledge about a specific topic, language use to express knowledge, and as a way to use this knowledge to determine the "directions the text will take." The plan is put into place before the text is assigned. The three step process includes asking students to respond to the following: (1) tell anything that comes to mind when. . ., (2) what made you think of . . ., (3) based on our discussion, have you any new ideas about . . . . The teacher records the responses and then assesses students' prior knowledge.

Although this plan was not designed with ESL students in mind, I believe it would be a useful way to assess ESL students' prior knowledge about a new text. This could be completed during one class period, prior to the implementation of new reading material. I know that it would certainly be a new approach for me as I plan. Since one of my major concerns is ways to improve and teach reading comprehension, determining the level of prior knowledge that my students have on a particular subject would help me to design lessons that would fulfill their knowledge gaps which in turn would aid in comprehension. Additionally, it would provide students with an "awareness of their own prior knowledge."

Shih, M. (1992). Beyond comprehension exercises in the ESL academic reading class. TESOL Quarterly 26 (2), 289-317.

I selected the article by Shih because it addresses the issue of preparing students to read for academic purposes which is a concern I have. In a lengthy discussion, she proposes ways by which teachers can prepare ESL students to read for academic purposes through a more holistic approach which moves beyond the skills based approach as advocated in many reading texts. Her discussion is engaging and thorough. I would like to discuss all areas of her article, but it would move beyond my research question; therefore, I will discuss only the areas that deal directly with comprehension strategies.

She proposes that students be trained in strategies that assist them in activating relevant background knowledge through questioning a text, lecture, handout, or worksheet. In addition, students need strategies to help them determine the organizational signals of a work through creating mental maps, or outlines of a book. By doing so, they will get a general sense of the text. Students also need to be made aware of the purposes for reading and learn to adjust reading to determine major ideas, and learn "fix-up" strategies. In other words, students need to learn comprehension strategies that assist them in monitoring their own comprehension. Teaching students questioning techniques will monitor comprehension. Providing students with the strategies to determine meanings of unfamiliar words will aid in comprehension. Teaching selective underlining and annotating a text are also useful ways to self-monitor comprehension.

I like the suggestions she makes in this article because they address the reader as learner. She moves beyond the teacher directed comprehension strategies to

strategies that ESL students can utilize in order to become independent readers and learners. Though the article was written for individuals who are planning and implementing courses in reading for academic purposes, it has concrete ideas that teachers can use to implement independent comprehension reading strategies for the ESL reader.

Bangs, S., ESL Coordinator, Harrisburg Area Community College. Assessing beyond skills: Can students manipulate text? personal interview, November 12, 1998.

I interviewed the coordinator of the ESL program at my institution because I thought the final exam she assigned was interesting and innovative. The class is comprised of ESL and native speakers who are at the second level in the reading sequence. The final is designed to make the students be the teacher. Throughout the semester, she has students reading books as she monitors comprehension through questioning, and class discussion. In addition, she has students read articles and poetry that have similar themes to the books. She designed the final with the following objectives in mind: check comprehension, ability to infer, determine main idea, ability to reflect, ability to choose reading material and identify themes, and enjoyment. She used Oprah's Book Club list which she obtained through the internet. Students are to select one book from Oprah's Book List read it, and complete the final assignment. The final assignment asks students to develop comprehension questions, select an article, and write one reflective journal question related to the reading.

Although I do not know as of this writing whether the final exam is going to work as effectively as she hopes, I think it is an innovative way to assess students' ability to comprehend a work without the teacher's continual guidance. In addition, I believe that by requiring students to select books from a list that has a wide readership, the teacher

is actually placing them within what Smith would call the "literacy club" beyond the classroom literacy structure. By doing so, students will realize that there is a larger reading community that exists beyond the classroom. How does all of this relate to ways of teaching reading comprehension to my students? I believe that by giving students the opportunity to select a text, interact with a text, to question the text, and to build their own schematic backgrounds the teacher is actually nurturing students' comprehension strategies.

Aebersold, J., & Field, M. L. (1997). Preparing to read. From reader to reading teacher: issues and strategies for second language classrooms (pp. 64-95). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Aebersold and Field provide theoretical discussions along with practical strategies in their book. The book is designed with the inexperienced and experienced teacher in mind. In the chapter *Preparing to read* they provide strategies that can be utilized in improving students' reading and comprehension in the following areas: purpose for reading, activating and building background knowledge, previewing the text, prereading activities for lower levels of language proficiency.

This chapter addresses the importance of developing and teaching prereading strategies for students in order to increase the likelihood that they will comprehend the material. One such activity that I found interesting was having the students freewrite about a subject that relates to the upcoming reading. I think this strategy would benefit both the student and teacher. The student might in fact know more about the subject than he/she might initially think. The teacher could benefit by reading the freewrites and assessing how much background information is needed for the student to fully comprehend the work. Through the process of assessing students' background

knowledge a teacher will be able to design a lesson in order to get the most out of the students' ability to comprehend the material. Since I have never tried this as a method of assessing prior knowledge, I would like to try it the next time I introduce new reading material.

Aebersold, J.,& Field, M. L. (1997). *R*eading the text. From reader to reading teacher: issues and strategies for second language classrooms (pp. 96-115). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Aebersold and Field discuss the interactive model in teaching reading. This model suggests that reading is an interactive process whereby the reader is in a constant state of predicting, questioning and building knowledge while reading. They suggest activities and strategies that a teacher can use to make students consciously aware of practicing these strategies in order to improve comprehension.

The most important thing I learned from this chapter is the difference between strategies that monitor comprehension and build comprehension: monitoring is to check, while build is to focus on how the text progresses. They suggest using the think-aloud protocols on short passages as a way for a student to become more aware of the simultaneous workings of monitoring and building comprehension. This metacognitive approach would be useful in making students more aware of their processes of making meaning of a text because it would force them to examine their own reading strategies. I should like to try a think-aloud protocol on a minimal level to get a better sense of whether it is an effective way to get students to understand that comprehending a text means more than just understanding words. The process of reading is very interactive and in order to make meaning we have to question, predict, and adjust reading strategies.

Bangs, S., & Barnes, L. (1997). "Reading Fluency": Applying a fluency first approach in reading to develop metacognition. Manuscript submitted for publication.

The Fluency First Approach encourages students to read, write and discuss texts. In this paper Bangs and Barnes discuss the approach they use to foster reading fluency through the use of various genre, thematic units, textual formats and reflective journals within a whole language framework in the ESL classroom. There is a brief discussion on fostering metacognition with the implication that metacognition increases fluency in the areas of: determining important ideas, text construction, text that break patterns, "fix-up comprehension strategies and others.

Metacognition and assisting students in developing metacognitive strategies to improve reading comprehension appear in several of the articles I have reviewed for this annotated bibliography. This article by Bangs, and Barnes touches only on the theoretical framework and doesn't give practical suggestions for application of metacognitive strategies to improve reading comprehension. However, the discussion of assisting students in determining text construction and text patterns that are not traditional did shed light on ways by which students' reading comprehension can be impinged upon if they are not familiar with different writers' styles of expression, and different text construction. This is another area where teachers need to assist students in developing strategies that question and predict structural patterns of texts to aid in comprehension and other higher order skills such as the ability to infer, analyze and synthesize information from a text.

The "Reading Fluency" model as discussed by Bangs and Barnes has been implemented at the College where I teach. I know it has been a successful to approach in teaching reading fluency.

Casanave, C. (1988). Comprehension monitoring in ESL reading: a neglected essential. TESOL Quarterly 22 (2), 283-302.

Casanave's article is interesting in its careful discussion of comprehension monitoring and metacognition. Her article is not intended to provide practical strategies for monitoring comprehension, but rather a discussion of what comprehension monitoring is and how it can be applied to L2 contexts. Casanave asserts that comprehension monitoring is "one kind of activity under the umbrella of metacognition." She argues that the article is not an article that shows how to apply comprehension monitoring strategies, yet she provides an example of how a teacher might get started in getting students aware of what comprehension monitoring is. She suggests inserting questions within a passage that ask the reader to reflect, question or predict what is going on in the reading. This will force the reader to respond while she/he is reading.

This article reinforces the idea that it is important for ESL teachers to get students to become actively involved in the process of reading through making them aware of ways by which they can monitor their comprehension. My research is focused on finding ways to teach reading comprehension to the ESL students in my class. Teaching comprehension monitoring strategies is one way to achieve this.

Hanauer, D. (1997). Poetry reading in the second language classroom. Language Awareness 6 (1), 2-15.

The argument proposed by Hanauer for the use of poetry in the second language classrooms as a comprehension exercise has as its theoretical base the understanding that "conscious awareness of language aids language learning." Although this article begins with a lengthy and dense discussion of Formalist and

Conventionalist Theories of poetry, it ends with a more friendly and practical discussion of how poetry can be used in the classroom to teach comprehension. He suggests using song lyrics, and a poem with linguistic features and linguistic patterns that correspond to the language knowledge of the students. It should be stated explicitly that poetry is not easily comprehended and that students will have varying interpretations of the poem, the teacher assists the students in negotiating the meaning of the poem. He uses the example of the linguistic structure of a poem that has been popularized in song.

I was particularly interested in reading this article because I use poetry in my reading classes. I have found that many of the ESL students struggle with understanding a poem, but the native speakers struggle as well. Hanauer's defense for using poetry is grounded in the conscious awareness of the reader's struggle to comprehend the poem. The process of constructing meaning forces students to interact with the language and form of the poem. This interaction involves a constant monitoring of meaning construction.

Hosenfeld, C. (1995). Reading in English as a Second Language: some current issues, applications, and directions for future research. College ESL 5 (2), 21-34.

The article by Hosenfeld was presented as a keynote address at the Ninth Annual Conference of the CUNY Association of Reading Educators. In the article she raises several questions that are asked by teachers who have ESL students in their classrooms. While I did not discover many useful strategies or techniques that I could possibly use in my classroom to improve my students' comprehension, I found the article interesting in its discussion of developing metacognitive processes within the framework of theory.

In several of the articles I reviewed the authors advocated using metacognitive activities to help students understand their processes. I like the idea, but there are moments when I am a bit skeptical. I feel as though I, too, will be jumping on the metacognitive bandwagon without really understanding why these strategies (if they are strategies) might work for some students, in some situations, some of the time.

In addition, she discusses the issue of extensive reading. She pointed out that teachers need to give ESL students the opportunity to read extensively in their areas of personal interest rather than to privilege a novel over different types of text. Giving students a choice is really important, and I should like to incorporate more opportunities for extensive reading in my classes.

Hosenfeld's article addressed many issues in ESL reading instruction that made me consider what I do as a teacher. This kind of article is good to read from time to time as it forces me to assess my methodological approaches; it either makes me reconsider, or it makes me realize how strongly I feel about the effectiveness of an approach.

Auerbach, E., & Paxton, D. (1997). "It's not the English thing": Bringing reading research into the ESL classroom. TESOL Quarterly 31 (2), 237-261.

I selected this article because it reports on a research project that actually brought reading research in the ESL classroom. The project was set up so that the researchers would actively involve students in researching their own processes as readers, and consider their literacy histories. Their findings suggest that giving L2 learners the opportunity to reflect critically about their own reading increases metacognitive awareness as well as fostering an enjoyment in reading. My research deals with ways to improve students' reading comprehension and I believe that

making students aware of their own processes as readers assists them in dealing more actively with a text, which in turn maximizes opportunities for comprehension. The article relates to my own informal classroom research wherein I have had students write literacy autobiographies. In my reading classes I usually have native and non-native speakers. I have found that when students wrote about their reading histories, they were more willing to talk about the struggles they were having in reading. This applied to all the students in the class. As a result, the classroom atmosphere was more friendly and students were willing to talk about why they didn't understand an assigned reading selection. Although, I did not go as far as the researchers in this article, I believe that utilizing classroom inquiry not only gives the teacher/researcher insights into the reading problems students are having, but it gives students a particular power to question why they aren't understanding a reading selection. In order to develop students' reading comprehension, they must be given strategies that will assist them in recognizing their ability to make meaning.

Grellet, F. (1981). Developing reading skills: a practical guide to reading comprehension exercises. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Grellet's book is a practical book of exercises that cover a broad range of possibilities for use in the classroom. The book is structured in such a way that reading and reading comprehension are discussed with a breakdown of reading comprehension exercise types which fall into the following categories: reading techniques, how aim is conveyed, understanding meaning, assessing the text. Under each of these categories there are example exercises that can be used to develop each area. The activities are designed to be used as they are presented in the book,

but are not so prescriptive that a teacher wouldn't be able to modify to fit the students' needs. The book provides a brief theoretical discussion about reading, but the main purpose of the book is to provide possible activities to be used in the classroom.

I am particularly impressed with the section that gives many ideas of ways to use non-linguisitc responses to the text. Asking students to draw maps, sequence pictures, match diagrams as they make meaning of a text all actively involve the student. This addresses not only another approach to teaching comprehension, but it also recognizes students' varying learning styles. I know that I can implement some of these exercises in my reading classes with much success; native and non-native speakers alike would enjoy a change in approach. A book like Grellet's would be a useful book for a teacher to have on her bookshelf, because it gives practical ideas with a explanation of how each exercise will meet the goal of developing comprehension.

Scholfield, P. (1982). Using the English dictionary for comprehension. TESOL Quarterly 16 (2), 185-194.

The article by Scholfield proposes that students' comprehension can be blocked when they don't know the definition of a word. Understanding the word goes beyond the dictionary definition of the word. The student must also learn the connotative meaning, idiomatic meaning, or learn how the word is being used in context. He asserts that using the dictionary to look up a word requires a strategy. His strategy as designed is a seven step process which includes: (1)locate the word(s) or phrase you don't understand, (2)if the unknown is inflected, remove the inflections to recover the form to look up, (3)search for the unknown in the alphabetic list,(4) try other procedures to find the unknown, (5)reduce multiple sense or homographic entries by

elimination, (6)understand the definition and integrate it into the context where the unknown was met,(7) infer one of the senses you have if none of the senses entered fit. I examined this article because I had not looked at specific strategies or ways to teach vocabulary as a way to improve comprehension. After a close examination, I have discovered that the strategy proposed by Scholfield is too convoluted to be practically applied in the classroom at least with the level of students I have in my classes. He has a good idea, but the explanation of how to use these strategies is too extended for my teaching style and ways of presentation. It could be that he proposes this from a linguist's view rather than from a teacher's perspective. If I ever use this strategy, I would have to reformulate it to make more accessible.

Johnson, P. (1982). Effects on reading comprehension of building background knowledge. TESOL Quarterly 16 (4), 503-516.

Throughout my research, one of the issues raised in discussions of improving students' reading comprehension has been the issue of building background knowledge. In this study, the researcher looked at the effects of building cultural background knowledge on reading comprehension. Included was a study of vocabulary in improving comprehension. The study was done on 72 advanced ESL students who read a passage on Halloween. What the researchers discovered is that giving students background knowledge about Halloween had a positive effect on reading comprehension. These findings did not surprise me considering all that I have read about the positive effects of building background knowledge. The vocabulary results were interesting. The researcher discovered that the group who had emphasis placed on vocabulary words was not as effective for reading comprehension. There could be many reasons for these findings, but I found the point that sometimes "the

normal redundancy in a text may enable readers to cope with unfamiliar words without too much disruption in their understanding," an interesting point. I know I won't throw out vocabulary instruction based upon this study, but I did learn that by providing students with a familiar topic, and general background knowledge about a topic it will likely increase their facility to develop meanings for unfamiliar words within context. This in turn will improve reading comprehension. Johnson's findings though not significantly new were a good reminder of the importance of building background knowledge to improve comprehension.

Won-Hyeong Kim

18 November 1998

The Internet for Second/Foreign Language Education

Over the past few years, the Internet has emerged as a prominent new technology. Because the use of the Internet is widespread in numerous fields and domains, such as business and economy, without a doubt, it also carries great potential for educational use, specifically second and foreign language education. Advances in computer technology have motivated second/foreign language educators to reassess the computer and consider it a valuable part of daily second and foreign language learning.

Therefore, my research for this annotated bibliography was done to answer the following questions:

1) How did the technology develop in a second/foreign language classroom? (The history of technology and second/foreign language teaching)
2) What is the Internet (including the Electronic Mail)?
3) How can various facets of the Internet be used in a second/foreign language classroom? —How can second/foreign language teachers use the e-mail and the Internet as tools for teaching English (including ways to use the Internet for their own research and communication and ways to involve students in using the e-mail and the World Wide Web)?
4) What are the benefits of employing the Internet in a second/foreign language classroom?
5) What are the disadvantages or obstacles the Internet presents in a second/foreign language classroom?

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6) What are the implications of using the Internet in a second/foreign language classroom?

Armstrong, K. M. and Yetter-Vassot, C. 1994. Transforming teaching through technology. Foreign Language Annals 27(4): 475-486.

This paper focuses the issue of the integration of technology into the foreign language curriculum. As more and more technological resources become available, it is necessary that instructors become aware of how those resources might be used to enhance foreign language teaching and learning. This paper gives an overview of some of those resources and their pedagogical benefits; suggests creative activities for using those resources; assesses students' reaction to the integration of technology into their classes; offers guidelines for this integration; and finally, provides a glimpse into the future of language learning.

Students, motivated by the immediacy and authenticity of contact with the target language and culture, can access a variety of electronic resources whenever they wish, from virtually wherever they wish. Instead of using the target language only when the instructor assigns a specific task, students can choose to meet or communicate with other students or native speakers electronically, or explore culture, art, civilization, and literature by navigating through the ever-growing pool of electronic language-centered resources.

As the foreign language profession prepares for the next century, it is essential that the foreign language teachers make informed decisions about how the technology will be integrated into the curriculum. This paper suggests technology, however, cannot

transform teaching by itself. Computers, laserdisc players, and language labs are of no value unless someone actually plugs them in and plugs into them. But partnered with creative and innovative instructors, technology becomes a remarkable resource whose potential we have only just started to explore.

Bee-Lay, S. and Yee-Ping, S. 1991. English by e-mail: creating a global classroom via the medium of computer technology. ELT Journal 45(4): 287-292.

This article describes a telecommunications project involving teenage EFL/ESL students in Singapore and Quebec. With the help of telephones, fax machines, word processors, computers, and electronic mail (e-mail), the students exchanged ideas and opinions on a variety of topics which they selected themselves.

In an expansion of the project into cross-cultural and cross-curricular work on literature, the students produced an impressive range of written work, based on their reading of stories about their own and their correspondents' cultures. The project developed the students' grasp of technology, improved their command of English, gave them a sense of pride in their own work, and enlarged their awareness of themselves as members of an international, global community. For the teachers, it was rewarding to confirm the hope that, through the use of literature, students could gain an understanding of the world far removed from their own reality.

This article concludes that the very presence of a micro-computer in the classroom can have a great motivating effect, and that the use of modern computer technology presents both students and teachers with exciting and rewarding challenges. For both students and teachers, this innovative approach to learning and to literature differed from conventional

classroom-based instruction, in that the work evolved directly from the students' own experiences and reactions, and took them beyond the confines of their own schools and national boundaries.

Chun, D. M. 1994. Using computer networking to facilitate the acquisition of interactive competence. System 22(1): 17-31.

The main thesis of this paper is that conducting class discussions on a computer network is an effective method for increasing the interactive competence of first-year foreign language learners because it provides students with the opportunity to generate and initiate different kinds of discourse. In addition, computer-assisted class discussion (CACD) allows students to play a greater role in managing the discourse, e.g. they feel freer to suggest a new topic, follow up on someone else's idea, or request more information. A decided advantage of CACD is that learners are under neither time pressure to respond nor the psychological pressure of making a mistake or looking foolish. In addition, the length and breadth of their entries are not restricted, and their individual styles are allowed to flourish.

Written transcripts of discourse produced by first-year German students in CACD show that learners do indeed perform a number of different interactional speech acts: they ask more questions of fellow students as well as (occasionally) of the teacher; they give feedback to others and request clarification when they have not understood someone else; they end conversations with appropriate leave-taking utterances.

In general, they take the initiative more than they do in the normal classroom, since the instructor's role has been decentralized. CACD thus provides students with the

opportunity to acquire and practice more varied communicative proficiency. Although this is essentially written practice, the fact that the interactional structures resemble spoken conversation suggests that this competence can gradually be transferred to the students' spoken discourse competence as well. The computer is thus proving itself to be an effective medium for facilitating the acquisition of interactive competence in writing and speaking.

Cononelos, T. and Oliva, M. 1993. Using computer networks to enhance foreign language/culture education. Foreign Language Annals 26(4): 527-541.

The call for more authentic communication in the language classroom has led to a variety of educational innovations such as content-based and learner-centered instructional approaches. Although these approaches developed concurrently with the application of computer technology to language teaching, the computer has not traditionally been heavily used in either content-based or learner-centered language courses.

This article reports on a content-based, learner-centered Italian language and culture class (Italian 403-1) at the University of Utah which used Usenet (NEWS) and electronic mail (E-Mail) to connect students with native speakers interested in communicating about contemporary cultural issues. Section One briefly outlines the history of the use of computer networks in language education. Section Two describes the design, implementation, and outcomes of Italian 403-1 and discusses the potential importance of NEWS for language teachers. Finally, Section Three addresses the benefits and challenges associated with the use of computer networks in the language classroom.

The results of Italian 403 and other foreign language courses that have incorporated the use of computer networks suggest that network services are among the Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) tools best suited to content-based, student-centered instruction. Text produced as a result of interaction with native speakers through the network can reflect students' individual interests and may be used as a basis for other learning activities, such as grammar review, peer evaluation of writing, research, discussion, and oral presentations. Above all, this article suggests using the networks allows teachers to introduce a student-centered element into language courses without making wholesale changes in the curriculum.

Green, A. 1997. A beginner's guide to the Internet in the foreign language classroom with a focus on the world wide web. Foreign Language Annals 30(2): 253-264.

By explaining the Internet in simple terms and offering suggestions for its use, this paper attempts to provide the language teacher with the impetus to get online and to integrate the tremendous resources available on the Internet into the classroom.

This paper says that the language teacher who wants to utilize the Internet in the classroom faces four challenges. The first is to come to a working knowledge of the history, language, and worldview—the culture—of cyberspace. The second challenge is to establish an actual hardware link to the Internet. The third is to become aware of the breadth, depth, and limitations of the resources available on the Internet. The final challenge is to integrate the diverse and variable quality of information, resources, and opportunities available through the Internet into the language classroom.

It is very important to maintain some perspective on the Internet and its potential role in the language classroom. A tremendous amount of information and resources exists, but there is also much that is not worth reading. In addition, a fair amount of preparation is necessary in order to get online. Like a foreign culture, the Net can be very intimidating and overwhelming. It cannot be learned all at once. But also like another culture, the Net has a tremendous amount to offer.

Although the chaotic nature of Cyberculture may cloud the picture of its underlying importance, the size and influence of the Internet will only continue to grow. This paper concludes that our understanding of and interaction with the borderless and dynamic medium of cyberspace can aid us in the teaching of language and culture. The time has come to immerse ourselves in the Internet and make use of its offerings.

Kelm, O. R. 1992. The use of synchronous computer networks in second language instruction: a preliminary report. Foreign Language Annals 25(5): 441-454.

This paper consists of a report on an innovative language teaching approach that has been implemented for students who are learning Brazilian Portuguese at the University of Texas, Austin. This paper reports some personal observations regarding a second language teaching situation where non-native speakers of Portuguese participated in class discussions via real time computer networks. Synchronous computer networks have been utilized in university courses to improve group participation in writing and composition in L1 situations. This same process offers L2 an opportunity to participate in interlanguage discussions via computer.

The observations suggest that computer assisted class discussions may promote increased participation from all members of a work group, allow students to speak without interruption, reduce anxiety which is frequently present in oral conversations, render honest and candid expression of emotion, provide personalized identification of target language errors and create substantial interlanguage communication among L2 learners.

Kitao, S. K. 1998. Interaction and on-line synchronous communication in English language learning. CALL Electronic Journal 3(1). Retrieved November 5, 1998 from the World Wide Web: http://www.lc.tut.ac.jp/callej/kkitao.html

This paper discusses the role that communication in general and synchronous communication in particular plays in language learning and how students can be introduced to it at two Internet sites, SchMOOze University and Dave's ESL Cafe Chat Central. It also reports the results of a survey of students who are non-native English speakers who uses synchronous communication sites for, at least in part, the purpose of improving his/her English proficiency, even if the person is not currently involved in formal English courses.

Among the many uses of the Internet for English language students, synchronous communication in an activity with particular promise, because it allows students to interact with others in English in real time. This study involved participants at two such sites. The users of both sites were very strongly positive about the sites' usefulness. Virtually all of them believed that chatting in English helped them improve both their

English proficiency and their confidence in their English. Specifically, users thought that chatting helped them improve their vocabulary and their knowledge of idioms and expressions. All of the participants used the sites for chatting. Some of the participants also used SchMOOze University to play word games and to build or program. Even users who live in English-speaking countries found chatting useful in improving their English proficiency and confidence. It may be that they find chatting on the Internet less threatening or less stressful than face-to-face communication.

This study suggests that students in English language classes can benefit from being introduced to synchronous communication at SchMOOze University or Dave's ESL Cafe, both as part of class activities and as an activity that they can do individually.

Lee, L. 1997. Using Internet tools as an enhancement of C2 teaching and learning. Foreign Language Annals 30(3): 410-427.

This paper first briefly reviews the literature on C2 culture teaching. Second, it provides an overview of the Internet as an instructional tool for foreign language teaching and its advantages in the proficiency-based approach. Third, it describes in detail a method of using Internet tools for C2 learning that the writer of this paper have found to be successful in her Intermediate Spanish courses at the college level. After reporting the results of a pilot study, it is concluded with some of the implications of the preliminary findings, giving suggestions for future improvement with respect to this study.

In spite of many efforts and contributions from previous researchers, the need for a creative approach in using combined Internet tools for C2 learning has not been found.

This pilot study shows that the use of Internet resources is a meaningful way to integrate language and culture that provides opportunities for students to learn about the target culture while using E-mail to discuss cultural aspects with native speakers. In addition, the use of the Internet and E-mail increased students' interest and motivation for learning C2 and L2 in a dynamic rather than passive way. This study helps to provide both learners and teachers with a practical way of using the Internet resources for C2 learning.

Given the positive effects of the application of the Internet on Hispanic cultural learning shown in this study, this paper argues foreign language teachers should be encouraged to explore and experiment with the Internet to fully exploit the possibilities for language learning by means of this resource that opens pathways to authentic materials and dynamic communications with native speakers around the world.

Leppanen, S. and Kalaja, P. 1995. Experimenting with computer conferencing in English for academic purposes. ELT Journal 49(1): 26-36.

This article is a report on an experiment in which the applicability of computer conferencing was tested in an L2 context. With five EAP (English for Academic Purposes) students taking a content-area course in the University of Jyvaskyla, Finland, computer conferencing (CC) was used for two purposes: for discussions, and for introducing the students to the idea of writing as a process. In this way the students (and the tutor) could work at their leisure, free of a specific time place.

These arrangements had various interesting consequences. Compared with traditional classroom discussions, the students came to do most of the 'talking', taking on roles other than that of a student, and therefore using computer conferencing not just answering the

teacher's questions but for a number of other functions (such as disagreeing, challenging). Moreover, the feedback that the students got from each other in the process of writing two essays differed in quality from that given by the tutor with his red pen. This paper discusses these and other findings in greater detail, and gives suggestions for improving the system.

Liaw, M-L. 1998. Using electronic mail for English as a foreign language instruction. System 26: 335-351.

This study investigates the efficacy of integrating electronic mail (e-mail) writing into two EFL classrooms and explores the dynamics involved in the process of e-mail exchanges. The students in one class were paired up to exchange e-mail messages with the students in the other class for one semester. At the end of the project, a written survey and group interviews were conducted to collect students' comments on and assessment of the approach. E-mail entries were analyzed to obtain information on the social and linguistic occurrences during the exchange process.

Findings from survey and group interviews revealed positive responses. Whereas the improvement of English language skills was not obvious, the use of e-mail did provide the student with a necessity to use English to communicate with another L2 speaker. Acquiring computer skills and establishing potential friendship with mysterious partners were interpreted by many students as a wonderful experience.

An analysis of the e-mail messages suggested social interaction to be a major driving force for active communication between partners. Pairing by gender also affected the interaction dynamics. The study concludes with suggestions for effective integration of e-

mail writing into L2 classrooms and future research on the social/interactional aspects involved in network-mediated collaborative L2 learning environments.

Markee, N. 1994. Using electronic mail to manage the implementation of educational innovations. System 22(3): 379-389.

In this paper, Markee argues that the use of electronic mail is not limited to setting up opportunities for ESL students to find pen-pals to practice their English, etc: it represents an important new resources for managing the implementation of educational innovations. He reports on how, in his capacity as director of the ESL service courses at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (UIUC), he has used electronic mail to promote communication about curricular developments in these courses by setting up an electronic list, to which all ESL TAs (Teaching Assistants) and supervisors subscribe. That is, he illustrates how he has utilized the email list, called "tailst," to collaboratively redesign the ESL service courses with the people who would have to implement the changes promoted by the proposed redesign—the TAs.

This paper says that e-mail lists such as the "talist" are very useful tools for promoting educational innovation because they allow program directors to:

1) informally discuss or float proposals for change with teachers
2) clarify any potential misunderstandings
3) identify any concerns or reservations which teachers may have with respect to a proposal for an innovation
4) build a consensus around the proposed innovation

5) refine the proposed innovation and to build links between it and other proposals for change

More specifically, e-mail is not only an innovation in its own right, it is potentially very important management tool for promoting educational change.

Oliva, M. and Pollastrini, Y. 1995. Internet resources and second language acquisition: an evaluation of virtual immersion. Foreign Language Annals 28(4): 551-563.

This article presents the results of a two-year study on the integration of Internet resources as a primary instructional tool in the teaching of Italian language classes at the University of Utah. All students studying Italian belonged to the virtual community of Italian speakers who communicate daily on various channels and mailing lists.

This article shows that Internet resources enhance the user's freedom of communication. They do not require physical presence in the same place at the same time for communication to occur. Since Internet resources are available to many language students and allow them to communicate with native speakers around the world, they constitute tools conducive to fostering second language acquisition. Based upon self-evaluation questionnaires, this article analyzes their integration and use in the teaching of Italian at the University of Utah, over a period of two years (1992-1994) in five advanced courses. The results reflect a general perception of Internet-Mediated Instruction's positive impact on student learning and reveal some areas where improvement is needed, notably in the technical settings. This study reveals that writing skills are most affected by Internet-Mediated Instruction.

Osuna, M. M. and Meskill, C. 1998. Using the World Wide Web to integrate Spanish language and culture: a pilot study. Language Learning & Technology 1(2): 71-92.

This pilot study investigated the potential role of Internet resources as a means to gain a deeper sense of the culture of the Spanish-speaking world for college students. Thirteen college students enrolled in the first quarter of Basic Spanish were instructed to utilize the Web to complete five activities that expanded on the aspects of culture studied in the class. Data collected demonstrate that the Web is a suitable tool to increase language and cultural knowledge, as well as a means to increase motivation. Pedagogical implications are discussed.

This pilot study integrated Spanish language and culture using the Internet. Results affirm that the medium is a valuable tool for foreign language and cultural learning. Technology seems to be especially beneficial in promoting cultural learning. According to the pilot's participants, advantages of the Internet over other media and instructional tools are numerous.

Shelley, J. O. 1997. Post-institute connections: implementation and outcomes of a diffusion-based electronic mail instructional model. Foreign Language Annals 30(1): 124-139.

Electronic mail's capability to provide opportunities for language exchange, establish ties with other cultures, and facilitate contact with other educators makes it an excellent medium to introduce foreign language teachers to the power of computer-based technologies in education.

This study describes diffusion-based electronic mail instruction integrated into the four National K-12 Foreign Language Resource Center (NFLRC)1994 summer institutes that 86 foreign language educators attended. Instruction was designed to introduce institute participants to electronic mail to provide them with a means of communication as they completed post-institute collaborative projects. Presented are outcomes of participants' electronic mail instruction identified by two data sources: 1) participant electronic mail messages and 2) a related study comparing participants' electronic mail use with that of foreign language teachers who did not receive instruction.

Results of the two primary data sources suggest that inservice education does effect the adoption of electronic mail by foreign language educators. That is, the diffusion-based instruction was effective in encouraging participants to use electronic mail. Participants who received electronic mail instruction used electronic mail significantly more than comparable foreign language teachers who did not attend the institutes.

Sullivan, N. and Pratt, E. 1996. A comparative study of two ESL writing environments: a computer-assisted classroom and a traditional oral classroom. System 29(4): 491-501.

Networked computer technology has become prevalent in higher education but little research has been conducted to attest to its benefits for the ESL student writer. This study compared students in two ESL writing environments: a networked computer-assisted classroom and a traditional oral classroom. Three measures were used to examine attitudes towards writing with computers, writing apprehension, and writing quality. In addition, data from transcripts (computer-assisted class) and audio/videotapes (oral class)

of large group discussions and peer response groups were evaluated for qualitative differences.

The results of the quantitative analyses showed that writing environment had no effect on attitudes toward writing with computers or writing apprehension. However, significant at the 0.08 probability level, writing quality did improve in the computer-assisted classroom. A qualitative analysis of the data indicated that types/patterns of discourse in the two writing environments were clearly different.

During large group discussions, the teacher's role was minimized in the computer-assisted classroom, while the opposite was found in the oral classroom. During peer response group sessions, the comments made in the computer-assisted classroom were more focused although in the oral classroom, the comments were more numerous.

Tsui, A., Wu, K. and Sengupta, S. Enhancing teacher development through *TeleNex*—a computer network for English language teachers. System 24(4): 461-476.

This paper reports an attempt to enhance the continuous professional development of English language teachers by setting up a computer network, *Telenex*, which links teacher educators at the University of Hong Kong with school teachers. The paper first proposes that the concept "teacher development" encompasses three important facets: the development of knowledge and skills, the development of a collaborative culture, and the development of the teacher as a person. It then discusses how the two components of the network, namely the database component and the communications component, enhance these facets of development.

Briefly, the database component provides, through its grammar database and teaching ideas database, a body of subject matter knowledge and a bank of teaching resources to help teachers to develop their knowledge and skills. The communications component focuses on the other two facets of teacher growth. It provides a platform for teachers to initiate cross-school collaboration, build confidence in themselves as autonomous professionals, and share reflections on their classroom practices with others, thus enhancing their collaborative and personal development.

In Hong Kong, opportunities for teacher development often take the form of refresher courses or seminars. While these courses and seminars are necessary, they have time and geographical constraints. However, the network can be accessed by teachers at any time of the day, in whatever geographical location, and at any point in their teaching career. That is, the network is providing an important "lifeline" for teachers to hold onto when they feel that they need it.

Messages sent in by users show that participating teachers have been using the network to enrich their knowledge base, to widen their teaching repertoire, to learn from and share ideas and frustrations with their peers, and to reflect on their practices. These messages demonstrate that the network is providing valuable support to teachers in their development as autonomous professionals.

Vallance, M. 1996. The design and utilization of an Internet resource for business English learners. The Internet TESL Journal 2(10). Retrieved November 3, 1998 from the World Wide Web: http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/Articles/Vallance-Business/index.html

This article details the design of a hypertext decision making activity located on the Internet for business English students wishing to review exponents and vocabulary associated with conducting business meetings. Statistical data from students who contacted the activity worldwide is discussed and recommendations offered for future development of Internet resources for language learners.

A negative feature of a hypertext activity is the potential for passive viewing, with the learner failing to engage with the materials in ways which result in effective learning. However, if learners understand what is required of them, and actively think about the materials, their structure and relationship to learning, the opportunity for communication and linguistic development may be enhanced by decision making, hypertext activities available on the Internet. Such exercises which focus on contextual clues incorporating problem solving and decision making that are expected to produce sustained communication through corresponding negotiation requires planned pre-activity preparation and guidance.

'Business Meetings' was designed accordingly and questionnaire feedback suggested that the activity motivated learners, providing them with a valuable resource that can be referred to at any time either as a group activity or for individual self study. Furthermore, personalized learning programs may be authored by teachers with the provision to negotiate individual learning activities. Finally, investment in staff and student training is recommended for institutions to make substantial utilization of the Internet and its associated technological and pedagogical benefits.

Warschauer, M. 1996. Comparing face-to-face and electronic discussion in the second language classroom. CALICO Journal 13(2): 7-26.

One of the supposed benefits of computer-mediated communication is that it can result in more equal participation among students. This study tested that claim by comparing equality of student participation in two modes: face-to-face discussion and electronic discussion. In a counter-balanced, repeated measures study, small groups of ESL students conducted discussion face-to-face and electronically.

Amount of participation was calculated per person for each mode and was correlated to factors such as nationality, language ability, time in the U.S., and student attitude. In addition, a global measure of equality of participation was calculated and compared across the two modes.

The findings of this study suggest that electronic discussion may create opportunities for more equal participation in the classroom. Furthermore, this apparently can be achieved without disadvantaging more verbal students. The five most outspoken students in the face-to-face discussions (four Filipinos and one Japanese married to an American) all continued to participate more than 25% of the time in the four-person electronic discussion groups. Thus, while their percent of participation dropped, they still participated more than their share and may have even benefited from the more balanced discussion, since they had more opportunities to listen to others. On the other hand, the four quietest members of the class in face-to-face discussion (all Japanese), increased their participation almost ten-fold (from only 1.8% of comments to a 17.3% of comments) and thus went from almost total silence to relatively equal participation. At the same time, the more complex and formal language in the electronic discussions was

potentially beneficial to all the students, since it may assist them in acquiring more sophisticated communicative skills. That is, the findings of this study shows a tendency toward more equal participation in computer mode and reveals some factors which correlated with increased student participation in that mode.

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Beyond the Red Pen:
An Annotated Bibliograhpy on Teacher Feedback Issues

Introduction

As a teacher of writing at the American Language Institute, I am constantly searching for ways to make my students become more confident and more effective writers. For quite some time, I had been avoiding what I considered the complex and troublesome issues of teacher response by focusing my research on alternatives to teacher feedback—namely peer response groups. That is, I avoided these "messy" issues until I tackled the concept of teacher feedback head on in my reading for this annotated bibliography.

Thesis

While exploring the practical and philosophical issues of teacher feedback in L2 writing classrooms, I realized that finding specific answers was less important than developing insightful questions to ask both myself and my students.

What Are the Big Issues and Questions I Should Consider in Responding to L2 Writers?

Leki, I. (1992). Responding to ESL writing. In *Understanding ESL writers: A guide for teachers*. (pp. 122-133). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

In this chapter from *Understanding ESL Writers*, Ilona Leki provides a useful overview of the range of issues involved in responding to L2 writers' work. First, she explores the problematic nature of teacher feedback and then discusses how an ESL writing teacher's goals for her students as writers might influence how, when, and what she responds to. These questions lead neatly into a section where Leki brings up the political issues involved in responding to L2 writing. She suggests that "However much we may resist the idea, our responses to the writing of ESL students and our goals for them in our writing courses, are, in fact, laden with political content" (125).

Leki does not just raise important questions, she also provides useful strategies for responding to ESL student writing as well as advice on how to, as she calls it, "deal with" grammar. The fact that she creates two separate sections—one on response and one on

grammar—highlights a point I find very important—that response to L2 writing can include but is not limited to grammar correction. Her final section comes back to the question of goals: How far should we go? Should we expect an L2 writer to be indistinguishable from an L1 writer or could we view certain features of L2 writing in the same way we view an L2 speaker's accent—a problem only as it gets in the way of communication?

The value of this chapter is that it raises so many questions for me as a teacher of L2 writing to think about—both practical (What are my goals for my students?) and philosophical (What do I do to my students when I write comments on their papers?). Leki reminds me that giving feedback is not simply an isolated act, but an act that is connected to larger issues of writing both in and outside the classroom. However, an added bonus to this chapter is that Leki does not just fixate on the big picture, but instead offers specific suggestions about how one might approach responding to all aspects of an ESL writer's paper—reminding me that feedback can take multiple forms and come from multiple sources—something that I do know, but occasionally forget, or lose track of in the middle of a hectic semester. Leki's overall approach also suggests that viewing feedback in dichotomous terms (grammar/content; oral/written; colonization/acculturation, etc.) is quite limiting both for teachers and students. This point along with a lot of thought-provoking questions are the best lessons I learned from this chapter.

Leki, I. (1990). Coaching from the margins: Issues in written response. In B. Kroll (ed.) *Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom.* (pp. 57-68). New York: Cambridge University Press.

What role(s) should I play as an ESL writing teacher? This article is useful to me because it highlights a dilemma that I constantly face as an ESL writing teacher—how do I reconcile the different roles that I play. Leki suggests that the three common roles a writing teacher occupies when giving feedback—reader, coach, and evaluator—have many points of conflict. This is especially true for the roles of coach—giving responses to help students with their writing—and evaluator—judging the students on their performance. I currently circumvent the worst of this dilemma at the ALI by grading my students mainly on the effort they put into the course rather than on what their final essays look like. But, Leki's article reminds me that in other contexts I will not have this luxury and that part of my students' grades may have to be determined by the nature of the product they produce. The useful thing about Leki's discussion of this conflict is that she does not claim that writing teachers need to choose one role or type of response, but rather they need to acknowledge and reflect on the tension they feel. That is exactly what reading this article helped me to do.

At the same time, Leki makes the point that there is little research evidence to suggest that written feedback does much good. She surveys the existing research to answer three related questions: Do students read the written feedback? If they read it, do they understand it? If they do understand it, can they utilize this understanding to make revisions? (p. 62-3). She concludes that though individual studies offer interesting insights, the overall results are far from conclusive. With this in mind, she makes a call for more research on feedback in L2 contexts at the end of the article. But though research does not offer the ESL writing teacher a clear direction in which to go, Leki does provide a number of suggestions that reflect her overall sense that "how best to respond to student writing is part of the broader question of how to create a context in which people learn to write better or more easily"(57).

This is the other useful insight that I gained from reading this article. It is difficult and perhaps ineffective to look at feedback outside of the context in which it exists. That is, two teachers can provide the same sorts of written feedback on their students' papers, but if the relationships they have with their students and the classroom climate they create are quite different, than the results of their feedback on student revision may also be quite different. This suggests to me that the question is not what type of feedback works best, but how does my method (or methods) of feedback connect with the kind of classroom context I want to create.

Raimes, A. (1984). Anguish as a second language? Remedies for composition teachers. In S. McKay (ed.,) *Composing in a second language* (81-96). Cambridge: Newbury House Publishers.

What am I teaching my students to do when I respond to their writing? Am I teaching them to compose or am I teaching them something else? This is the main set of questions that Ann Raimes' article forces me to ask myself. I have read this article many times since I first started working with ESL students about eight years ago as a writing tutor and each time Raimes reminds me about the difficulty of composing in a second language and of how teacher response can shape and potentially get in the way of that process. Raimes' main purpose in this essay is to suggest that ESL writing teachers need to pay more attention to the act of writing and less to ESL. She argues that "one remedy for the anguish of composing is to concentrate on that making of meaning, to concentrate on the act of composing instead of peripherals"(92). She offers three areas in which teachers can do this: generating assignments for the class, giving feedback, and providing readings. In terms of providing feedback, Raimes suggests that corrections are not the only kind of feedback teachers can give and that work on developing grammatical forms should be "a parallel activity" to composing(88); it should not necessarily precede it.

Though pedagogical practice in most ESL writing classrooms in the United States has

changed a lot since this book came out in 1984, the concerns Raimes raises are still valid. Am I thinking more about myself and/or my supervisors as I construct assignments and syllabi for my ALI writing courses or am I thinking about my students, as writers? What sorts of feedback would really help my students to compose in this second (or third or fourth) language and how could I find out? Though I came of age as a tutor and teacher at a time when the process approach was firmly established in both L1 and L2 writing contexts, Raimes' belief—that a communicative approach may be just as important in teaching written language as it is in teaching spoken language—is one worth thinking more about. Am I helping students to communicate in writing simply by having them write drafts? How do my responses shape their view of what revision is? Raimes' essay leaves me with more questions then answers, but I find the questions essential ones for me to think about as a teacher.

Reid, J. (1994). Responding to ESL students' texts: The myths of appropriation. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28 (2), 273-292.

In giving feedback to L2 writers, where is the line between appropriation and intervention? Reid does not answer this question in her article, but instead suggests that in their attempt to avoid the evils of appropriation—taking over their students' work—many ESL writing teachers have stopped working with their students' texts altogether. Though this withdrawal may stem from the best of intentions, Reid argues that teachers need to "accept their responsibilities as cultural informants and as facilitators for creating the social discourse community in the ESL classroom"(275). Reid spends half of this article exploring how the "myth" of appropriation developed and discussing how most research on feedback has not taken into account classroom context and the relationships between teacher and student within this context. In the remainder of her article, Reid discusses how she negotiates issues of power, empowerment, appropriation, and intervention in her own writing classrooms.

Though I think Reid simplifies both the idea of appropriation and the concept of discourse communities in order to make her argument, she does offer an important insight in claiming that ESL teachers need to intervene in the writing processes of their students and to serve as linguistic, rhetorical, and academic resources. However, I chose this article not because I agree wholeheartedly with Reid's position, but because in reading and reacting to her piece, I was forced to think about and clarify my own. As a writing tutor, I have worked with far too many students—L1 and L2—who have come to me mystified and alarmed by the comments scrawled across their paper to be able to dismiss the issue of appropriation as a myth. However, my thoughts about appropriation and power have not led me to a hands-off attitude towards my students' writing; instead, it has lead me to ponder the nature of the interventions I make and the roles I play. Reid's article made me realize that I view

appropriation and intervention not as a dichotomy, but as a continuum and my choices as a teacher locate me in different places on it. This is where Reid and I seem to concur. We both see empowering students as an important goal and that intervention is an important tool in doing this. With empowerment in mind, Reid provides a list of questions teachers should ask themselves about the role and nature of response in their classroom. I found these questions so useful that they are now nicely word-processed and taped to the wall by my computer.

Reid, J. (1993). Responding to student sriting. In *Teaching ESL writing*. (pp. 205-228). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.

What types of feedback should I be providing my students? Who should be responding to my students' writing and how? In this chapter from *Teaching ESL Writing*, Joy Reid suggests many different types of response situations that ESL writing teachers can facilitate for their students. Response, Reid argues, needs to be differentiated from evaluation because even though evaluation--feedback used to justify a grade or other form of ranking—involves response, not all response is evaluative in nature. It can be descriptive (You begin your paper with a story about your name.) or reactive (I had a similar experience at Walmart!). Reid also emphasizes that response should be an "on-going process"(205) starting before a writer even puts words down on the paper. Because she believes response should come from many different sources, Reid discusses peer review groups as well as other multiple audience techniques such as sending students to the writing center or setting up tutorial groups. When she turns to a discussion of teacher feedback, Reid continues to offer multiple methods. She discusses conferencing and student annotations as additional means of giving students feedback for revision.

Two very useful ideas that Reid repeatedly stresses in this chapter are that ESL writing teachers must occupy a number of different roles as they respond to students' writing and that they need to prepare their students to effectively engage in all feedback situations—everything from peer review to conferencing. The first point is one that I already know well. I often talk to my students about how I will respond to each draft of their paper differently. In the early drafts, I will be a reader, then I will become a reader and a writing consultant (offering advice about structure and organization), and finally, I will read as an editor and error analysis—focusing on the grammar and mechanics of my students' papers. The second point is one that I have thought about in terms of peer review, but not so much in other situations. Suddenly, I am curious. What would happen if I prepared my students more for the written feedback I gave them? Had them practice interpreting my questions, etc.? I am not one to write "awk" or "run-on" in red in my students papers, but are my content questions any less confusing? Could I do similar preparation for the conferences I have with students? If students wanted to use the

writing center as a resource, how could I prepare them to interact and negotiate with tutors? These questions will influence the decisions I make for my writing class next semester (and maybe even some of my decisions for what remains of this semester).

Severino, C. (1993). The sociopolitical implications of response to second language and second dialect writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 2 (3), 181-201.

What is the political nature of what I do when I respond to L2 writers? Carol Severino discusses some useful concepts that have helped me to consider but not be paralyzed by this question. Severino begins by suggesting that no L2 classroom context is free from political and ideological issues: EAP programs ask international students to acculturate to American academic culture, many immigrant ESL programs promote assimilation of American values as the pathway to economic success, and even the labeling of students as L1, L2, and bilingual carries political ramifications. She then argues that teachers' responses to second language and second dialect writing "have sociopolitical implications, some more subtle than others, that need to be brought out in the open and analyzed"(184). Severino identifies three stances toward response that differ in terms of attitudes toward cultural and linguistic difference: separatism, accommodation, and assimilation. Though she admits she tends to favor the accomodationist stance, Severino discusses what each stance offers for students and teachers at its best and worst.

For me, the real value of Severino's article is when she shows how these three stances come into play as she tutors a Japanese graduate student, a Korean American ESL student, and an African-American student. In working with each individual and their writing, Severino takes into account multiple factors—the student, their goals, the paper itself—and shifts between the three stances in various ways. For example, taking a separatist stance toward the BEV influenced text written by the African American writer, Severino responds to the content of the essay and not the form. However, several sessions later, she and the student work together to standardize his spelling, a more accomodationist activity. It is clear from this that Severino is not suggesting that there is one stance that is better or more politically correct to take, but rather ESL teachers need to realize "that a continuum of choices is available to them"(198).

I chose this article for several reasons. One is that I learned much of what I know about writing center theory and pedagogy from Carol Severino. This knowledge, in turn, informs much of what I do in the writing classroom—both L1 and L2. This article also helps me to think about sociopolitical issues in teaching—something that is very important to me—in a useful and practical way. Many essays on critical pedagogy never come out of the ideological clouds and address what one does on a day to day basis with students. This one does! Finally,

this article suggests it is important to consider specific contextual issues when deciding how to respond to a particular student—issues such as the student's past experiences and future goals. That is, to answer the question, what is the best sort of feedback to give a student, one has to ask more questions about and to that student.

What Sorts of Questions are Generated By Descriptions and Analyses of Other Teachers' Written Feedback?

Ferris, D, Pezone, S., Tade, C., & Tinti, S. (1997). Teacher commentary on student writing: Descriptions and implications. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 6 (2), 155-182.

In this study, Ferris et. al. examined the written feedback produced by a single experienced teacher of ESL composition over the course of two semesters to analyze both its purposes and structures and to determine if and how it changed in response to student ability, type of assignment, and time of the semester. In order to explore these issues effectively and more in deptn than previous studies (such as Zamel's below), the researchers developed an analysis model to describe how the teacher responded. This model was developed by using the data collected to generate descriptive categories for both the intent (what the instructor wants to say) and the linguistic features (how they say it) of the response. The researchers then analyzed the frequency of these different categories as they related to several contextual issues. The results demonstrate that the teacher studied used commentary to address a wide range of writing issues and she used a range of linguistic structures to indicate her intent. In addition, the results suggested that the content and form of teacher response did vary depending on the nature of the assignment, the student, and the time of the semester.

This study was useful to me for several reasons. One, I found the analysis model very interesting to think about in terms of my own feedback. Ferris, et. al. mention that one of the uses they see for this model is in helping inexperienced teachers of ESL writing to develop "schemata about the substance and form of written commentary"(177). As a somewhat experienced but continually learning ESL teacher, I am very interested in using this model to describe and analyze the written commentary I make on my students' papers. How do my own comments vary across drafts? Across students? Across the semester? I wonder if I will be surprised at what I find. Also, Ferris et al. suggest that this model can also be used for further research into what specific kinds and forms of feedback help different students. I could see using portions of this model to teach my students how to read and interpret my comments. Finally, the results of the study suggest once again the need to examine feedback in context in

order to understand the complexity inherent in the process of responding to L2 students writing.

Zamel, V. (1985). Responding to student writing. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19 (1), pp. 79-101.

At the end of this article, Zamel argues that "we should respond not so much to student writing, but to student writers"(97). Though I already strongly hold this belief, I still learned a lot from Zamel's research into and discussion of written response. Zamel analyzes the written feedback of 15 ESL writing teachers by examining 105 student texts; she concludes that written feedback generated by these L2 writing teachers has many of the same problems that written responses from L1 teachers do:

> ESL writing teachers misread student texts, are inconsistent in their reactions, make arbitrary corrections, write contradictory comments, provide vague prescriptions, impose abstract rules and standards, respond to texts as fixed and final products, and rarely make content-specific comments are offer specific strategies for revising the text (86).

Zamel suggests that the ESL writing teachers she studied saw themselves more as language teachers than writing teachers, and that their preoccupation with language-related problems prevented them from making other needed responses.

Zamel provides many examples of this from the data she collected and looking at all the scratch outs, brackets, and COIK (clear only if known) comments made me wonder what my students think when they get a paper back from me. Not that I respond to my students' papers in anything like this fashion, but what do my comments look and feel like to my students? I'm sure that the teachers Zamel studied did not mean to be confusing or cruel in their responses; they wanted to help their students improve just as I do. But, as Zamel suggests, "Despite our best intentions, our responses communicate conflicting and constricting notions about the nature of writing" (93). I do not think I am immune to this just because I, thirteen years later, tend to approach ESL writing more communicatively.

Though I currently view drafts of my students' papers as drafts and not fixed products to be edited, Zamel's suggestions are still useful and worthy of ongoing consideration. For instance, it would be very useful for me both to look back and analyze the types of responses I make on students papers. Though content-focused, am I still vague or contradictory? Do my comments help students to see what actions they should take when they revise? Another source of information on this last question could be my students themselves. Zamel suggests that asking students about the feedback they receive would be a valuable source of information. I have to agree and I would like to do this with my own students before the end of the semester. Zamel also points out the value of making the relationship between the teacher and student more collaborative. Rather than being the authority about what the text should be,

the teacher can be an advisor or consultant helping the student develop their own text to best say what they want to say. Zamel suggests that face to face interaction and negotiation in conferences or tutorials might be a more effective way to achieve this collaboration.

What Sorts of Questions are Generated From Research on Student Perceptions of and Responses to Feedback?

Hyland, F. (1998). The impact of teacher written feedback on individual writers. ***Journal of Second Language Writing*****, 7 (3), 255-286.**

In this study, Hyland takes a more qualitative and longitudinal look at how students respond to teacher written feedback—both affectively and through their revisions. The study focuses on six students at an IEP in New Zealand—three undergraduate and three graduate students. The researcher collected data using multiple methods: student questionnaires and interviews; teacher think-aloud protocols; written documents, as well as classroom observations. The results of this semester-long study suggest that not only do students say they think feedback is important, but they also show it through the types of revision they make. Also, the study demonstrates that each of the six students had a slightly different pattern in reacting to feedback. To illustrate this, Hyland presents more detailed information on two of the six students to show how their expectations and preferences affected their reactions to and use of their teacher's feedback.

For example, Samorn, a graduate student and advanced writer, asked the teacher to focus feedback more on grammar because she expected to receive praise in this area; instead, the teacher praised other aspects of Samorn's work extensively and pointed out all the grammar weaknesses. Samorn's request for type of feedback was fulfilled, but her expectations were not met. As a result, Samorn lost faith in her writing abilities and went so far as to switch her academic focus to one that involved less writing. This example demonstrates what Hyland suggests is the case, "that 'good' revision and 'good' feedback can only really be defined with reference to individual writers, their problems, and their reasons for writing"(275).

Of course, this article leads me to ask myself a number of questions. How do the individual students in my class view the feedback I give? Does one student value and need the positive comments I give while another perceives them as unnecessary and insincere (a possible view suggested by Hyland)? What are my students' expectations for feedback? How do I meet or them or not and what is the result? How can I avoid such a damaging mismatch of expectations like the one that occurred between Samorn and her teacher? Hyland believes that

more dialogue between students and teachers about writing goals and feedback expectations might help. This is a suggestion I want to seriously think about in terms of my class. One option mentioned by Hyland is to turn the dialogue into a group activity; that is, have students discuss these sorts of issues with each other. Students would then be able to see how their attitudes and expectations differed from their classmates and in the process they might learn new strategies for dealing with feedback or jettison old ones. This article was useful for me both because of these practical suggestions, and because it turned my attention back to my students and their individual perceptions and needs.

Hedgcock, J. & Lefkowitz, N. (1996). Some input on input: Two analyses of student response to expert feedback in L2 writing. *The Modern Language Journal*, 80 (3), 287-308.

In the two closely related studies discussed in this article, Hedgcock & Lefkowitz explore both student perceptions about what constitutes effective feedback and the extent to which writers think they use teacher feedback to fulfill their assignments. To discuss the first issue, Hedgcock & Lefkowitz draw on a quantitatively analyzed survey they did of 316 L2 writers in the United States—both those writing in ESL classrooms and those writing in FL (foreign language) classrooms. The first reported results of this study (Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994) suggest that ESL and FL writers have slightly different perceptions about what makes feedback effective—FL writers valuing comments related to form while ESL writers tending to value comments related to content. However, for this article, the researchers apply further statistical analyses to the data and push the results one step further. They conclude that FL writers may have "beliefs about revision that are at once distinctly idea-centered and distinctly form-focused"(293); that is, they want teachers to address both issues simultaneously in their feedback. In contrast, the ESL writers tended to see revision as a sequence of content-related responses followed in later drafts by form-focused feedback.

To begin to explore the question of what students did with the feedback they received, Hedgcock & Lefkowitz's second study involved interviews with 21 of the original 316 L2 writers from the first study. However, in this article, the researchers only analyzed the results of four of these interviews—3 FL students studying German, French, and Spanish respectively as well as one ESL student. One interesting issue raised by the interviews is that FL students see writing and revising as a form of grammar practice and not a form of communication or creativity; another is that FL students think that form takes priority in the classroom writing that they do. A third issue—that for FL writers revision is usually seen as synonymous with error correction—was also occasionally echoed by the ESL writer. Finally, for both ESL and FL writers, interpreting teacher feedback was sometimes a frustrating "guessing game"(298).

Together, these two studies raise some interesting questions for me about student

expectations and the pressing need to find out what these expectations are. Though I do not anticipate teaching in an EFL or FL setting anytime soon, many of the students I work with now at the ALI come from these sorts of contexts and may have many of the same expectations that Hedgcock & Lefkowitz discuss. I have always given my students a survey at the beginning of the class, asking them about their past experiences with writing in both their L1 and in English. However, until I thought about the results of this study, it never occurred to me that I should also include questions about the feedback they have experienced as well—yet another idea for next semester. To me this is the value of research, the results help you to ask questions about your own particular context.

What Techniques for Response, Feedback, and/or Error Correction Could I Use in My ALI Writing Class?

Charles, M. (1990). Responding to problems in written English using a student self-monitoring technique. *ELT Journal*, 44 (4), 286-293.

Early on in her article, Maggie Charles asks, "How can teacher-response best help students revise their texts?"(286). Though my other readings in the area of teacher feedback have made me doubt that there is a best way for all students and all situations, Charles' idea of "self-monitoring" is one that I find intriguing and that I think I want to add to my feedback repertoire. Charles views the face-to-face negotiations of the writer and editor as the ideal because it allows a dialogue to occur "to which both parties contribute, and by discussion together they solve the problems that arise"(286). However, Charles acknowledges that there is little time for most L2 writing teachers to do the amount of conferencing such a relationship would require. Instead, the most common form of feedback that students receive is written—a method of response that allows little real interaction between student and teacher about their intent in writing the text or in writing comments about the text. Charles' idea of self-monitoring allows students to take some control over the feedback process by noting areas in their paper where they have questions. In addition, the teacher reads the paper with a better idea of the writers' concerns.

Charles identifies many benefits for the student in this technique including the chance for them to get direct positive feedback—something that rarely happens in a traditional response situation. Also, this procedure allows the student to take more responsibility for their work by reflecting critically and analytically on their writing. Charles also suggests that this technique is beneficial for the teacher because they feel they are helping the student more directly and because they can learn more about the students' knowledge, concerns, and

intentions.

This idea is one that I'm very eager to try out with my class and to see what further questions it raises. I am very interested in any activities that give students' more responsibility for their own learning and that create more interactions between me and my students. I currently hold office hours at Cafe Curio for my writing students, but only a few take advantage of them. This technique would help me to learn more about my students and their concerns and that seems a very valuable thing.

Hyland, K. (1990). Providing productive feedback. *ELT Journal*, 44 (4), 279-285.

In this article, Ken Hyland suggests two techniques, Minimal Marking and Taped Commentary, to make feedback a more interactive process; that is, to have the feedback process push students to return to their papers. Though Hyland seems to view feedback within a two-draft context, these two techniques might also benefit a more multi-draft writing classroom. Minimal Marking involves simply putting a mark next to the line where an error occurs rather than using some sort of code or actually correcting the error. When the paper is returned, students have to find and correct the errors. Hyland suggests that this activity can be done individually, in pairs, or in larger groups. Hyland has found that his students can correct almost three quarters of their errors in this way.

As one would expect, this technique only works for feedback focused on error correction; it would not work for organizational or rhetorical issues. However, the other technique suggested by Hyland, Taped Commentary, would work well for providing feedback to students in these areas. According to Hyland, this technique simply involves the instructor recording her comments about the paper as she reads and creating some sort of numbering system on the paper so that the student can match the comments to the appropriate place in the text. Hyland sees this technique as a way for the teacher to give more feedback in less time and also to create a more conversational tone with the writer.

I did not choose this article because I thought these techniques would work perfectly in my own classroom. Instead, I chose it because Hyland's suggestions made me ask myself, "What would be the strengths and weaknesses of using these two feedback techniques in my ALI writing class?" I think Minimal Marking might be very useful if used at the stage when my students are editing their papers and/or in conjunction with the kind of error analysis that Kroll & Schafer (1984) (see below) advocate. I am still wrestling with the idea of taped commentary. I like the novelty of it (as might my students) and the fact that it would help my students develop aural skills. However, I can't help but wonder if an interactive and negotiative writing conference might give them even more effective (and affective?) feedback as

well as exercise their aural and oral skills. In addition, conferences would help me to get feedback from students and not just give it.

Kroll, B. & Schafer, J. (1984). Error analysis and the teaching of composition. In S. McKay (ed..) *Composing in a second language* (135-144). Cambridge: Newbury House Publishers.

Ironically, this article is intended to bring SLA insights about interlanguage back to L1 composition, but I think it provides a valuable overview of error analysis that would be helpful for teachers of L2 writing to remember. Error analysis involves looking at errors not as the product of laziness or bad habits but as a sign of the cognitive process going on inside the writer's head. According to Kroll & Schafer, error analysis involves "investigating" why a student makes a particular mistake and then "applying this information to help the writer move closer to the target form"(137). The investigation of a morphological error may involve checking to see what sort of strategies the writer is using to hypothesize about form in the L2 such as applying a rule from the L1 to the L2 or over generalizing a rule in L2. The investigation of a discourse error also involves trying to find the logic behind the writer's choice. To introduce error analysis into the classroom, you need to both develop a good system for keeping track of students errors as well as trying to find time to work with students individually. Finally, Kroll & Schafer suggest that one of the goals of this activity is to help students start to investigate their own errors as well.

Error analysis is something that I did a lot as a tutor—especially when I was working with the same student over an extended period of time. However, this article reminded me of the cognitive theory behind what I was trying to do then and made me realize that I want to try to incorporate more error analysis into my classroom pedagogy. As an L2 writing teacher, I am still struggling to balance an emphasis on content with an emphasis on form. I want to provide my students with the linguistic knowledge they so desperately need, but I don't want to become one of those red pen wielders either. These days I feel I'm not doing enough to address my students' linguistic needs so error analysis seems an important concept to explore. However, the downside of error analysis is the time involved to address each individual student's needs. The question to ponder is how might I incorporate the cognitive notions of error analysis into my class in a less-time consuming fashion.

Miller, L. (1996). Their names are Juan and Rosa: Understanding and responding to noun number errors in ESL writing. *TESOL Journal*, 6 (2), pp. 20-23.

In many ways, this article is a more detailed discussion of the error analysis introduced in Kroll & Schafer's piece. Miller uses a few sentences from a student writer, who

has failed to add an -s to all her plural nouns, to demonstrate a new way of looking and responding to error. This "new form of error treatment" has been developed by Miller based on the principle that "grammatical errors are not simply errors of form, but rather interpretive conflicts for the reader involving meaning as well as form"(20). Using the example of noun number errors, Miller shows that not only does an -s added to a noun signal a meaning of more than one, but that a lack of an -s signals one and not an absence of number. The fact that the student writer adds the appropriate -s to some plural nouns and not to others suggests that she receives the first signal (s= more than one) but she doesn't receive the second (no -s = one). This is where teacher intervention comes in. Rather than simply correct the error, instead Miller recommends the teacher provide the student with the signal (name0 = 1) to help her see the meaning behind the form (or lack thereof).

This all may seem pretty simple, but the article explains in incredible detail not just the work involved in discovering the logic behind a student's error, but the need to explore and explain the logic behind the correct form itself. That is, it is not enough simply to focus on what the student doesn't know, but we need to focus on what we as native speakers unconsciously (or semi-consciously) know when we choose linguistic forms. The idea of applying this concept to more complicated grammatical point boggles my mind at the moment but that suggests that this is a way of looking at things worth wrestling with. I also began to wonder how this framework might be applied to the lexical, syntactical, and rhetorical choices we make as writers. How might this framework help me to make salient some of the conventions in academic writing in English. As you can see, I chose this article not because I am fascinated by the logic behind the plural -s, but rather because, for such a brief piece, it gave me a lot of pedagogical food for thought.

Storch, N. & Tapper, J. (1997). Student annotations: What NNS and NS university students say about their own writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 6 (3), 245-264.

Toward the end of her article, Charles (1990) (above) suggests that research needs to be done to explore how self-monitoring techniques work in a variety of situations. This study does exactly that—though the researchers use the term *student annotations*, rather than self-monitoring. Storch & Tapper explore how 10 NS and 15 NNS annotated their texts—to see what areas each group of students felt confident about and what areas gave them concern. They were also interested in discovering possible differences and similarities between the two groups. As in the self-monitoring technique, students in this study annotated their papers by writing questions or comments on the parts of the text where they wanted specific feedback from the instructor. The results of this study indicated that each group had slightly different concerns

while annotating. NNS focused their comments mainly on content, then grammar closely followed by structure while NS made annotations on a "narrower range of issues"(259) mainly related to the structure of their essays.

The results of this study made me even more interested in using student annotations in my classroom. My initial concern about this technique was over whether students would only note places where they had grammar problems, but this research suggests that L2 students express concern and ask questions about both form and content issues. In addition, as Storch & Taper note, the annotations that students make are both a good way for me to see if students have understood issues covered in class as well as valuable source of information about what future classes could cover. The only question I have left (for now) is how soon can I try this activity out.

ESL/EFL
Learning Strategies and Styles:
An Annotated Bibliography

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I have taken on the task of investigating learner styles and strategies within the ESL/EFL classroom setting. By researching this area of language teaching, I have a much better understanding of the various approaches or strategies teachers can use to teach while focusing on different learner styles.

Language learning styles and strategies are not to be confused. Learning styles can be thought of as the preference a learner has for processing, understanding, retaining and displaying information. Learning strategies, although very similar, differ in that they are not particularly concerned with the preferred way of learning but rather the means by which learning takes place. However, both learning styles and strategies can be thought of as complements to one another. In other words, specific learner style preferences influence the strategy a learner chooses.

In the following pages, I have uncovered many possible answers to the questions below:

How can teachers teach learning strategies in the ESL classroom?

How can teachers teach strategies to match learner styles?

What materials/teaching activities are used in addressing learner styles and strategies?

How can teachers identify different learner styles and strategies?

How can teachers teach strategies to match learner styles?

Bond, A. (1998). Dealing with different learning styles. In J. C. Richards (Ed.), Teaching in action: Case studies from second language classrooms (pp. 176-179). Bloomington, IL: Pantagraph Printing.

Bond (1998) discusses the importance of understanding learner styles and adapting classroom activities to reflect these learner preferences. Within the writing context of his classroom, Bond (1998) discovered that students who were paired together not only had different cultural backgrounds, but their styles of learning also interfered with their writing tasks. For example, the enthusiasm of one student who enjoyed working collaboratively seemed to negatively impact another who preferred working alone. In essence, student interests were conflicting and not much was being accomplished.

The solution involved becoming aware of the problem and providing alternatives for different students. Students were then given the opportunity to choose their partners. Those who preferred working with others and providing feedback during each step of their writing found comfortable places with one another while those who essentially liked to work alone relied on each other in the final revisions of their work.

The objective of the course centered upon analyzing one another's work, providing feedback and receiving feedback, as well as looking for proper organization and grammatical errors. By allowing students the freedom to choose partners, the teacher was able to accomplish course objectives and at the same time support the students' individual learning needs.

An important concept for the novice teacher to grasp is that it is often necessary to accept that students may in fact know what strategies for learning work best for them. Teachers should work towards encouraging different learner styles and provide strategies that complement learner preferences and not work against them.

What teaching activities are used in addressing learner styles and strategies?

Buchan, E. (1998). Sentence Auction. Dave's ESL Cafe [On-line], Available: http://www.pacificnet.net/~sperling/ideas.html

Buchan (1998) incorporates an aural and visual component to grammar instruction for students with these particular learning styles. An auction game is introduced to help students make use of several learning strategies.

Following grammar instruction, such as how to use *prepositions or coordinating conjunctions*, the teacher writes approximately ten sentences on the blackboard. He or she intentionally includes some sentences with errors. Students are then instructed to form groups. Groups may be divided into two teams or smaller groups, depending upon the classroom size. Each group is then given $1500-2000 (play money may be used or a slip of paper). The teacher explains the concept of an auction and bidding and then auctions off each of the sentences to the students/team with the highest bid. According to Buchan (1998), the teacher should start the bidding at $100. Students may only increase their bid by $50. Following the sale of each sentence, the team who bought the first sentence is asked whether their sentence is correct. If the sentence is incorrect, the team has ten seconds to correct. 5 points are awarded for guessing every correct sentence. 3 points are deducted for the incorrect sentences they could not correct and 3 points are awarded for every corrected sentence. Students are given 1 point for every $100 left at the end of the game.

By using a word auction, students learn to rely on each other to problem solve, a technique that some successful language learners are known to use. Students also have to rely on prior memory of vocabulary and grammar. This activity also helps learners make use of explicit learning strategies by focusing on linguistic features, practicing and communicating using the target language and observing their progress (i.e. this accomplished through an awards system).

How can teachers teach learning strategies?

Chamot, A. U. and Kupper, L. (1989). Learning strategies in foreign language instruction. Foreign Language Annals 22(1), pp. 13-24.

One of the most insightful findings in this research follows that "all students, no matter what their degree of success in learning a foreign language, have some cognitive control over their learning efforts and are able to describe their own mental processes" (Chamot & Kupper, 1989, p. 19). Teachers can therefore capitalize on students' knowledge of their strategy use, help them strengthen their current strategies and aid them in creating new strategies. Within this framework, teachers must provide learning situations and activities that will generate interest and motivation within the learner.

Chamot & Kupper (1989) suggest that teachers identify the strategy needs of the learner and coordinate them with course goals and objectives. When introducing new strategies, the teacher should explain the perceived benefits of the strategy, demonstrate the strategy through a "think-aloud," and outline the steps required to finish the task (Chamot & Kupper, 1989, p. 20).

An example of this type of strategy training is for the teacher to describe the writing process for composing a foreign language essay.

Teacher "Let me tell you what I do when I write an essay in Spanish. First I spend some time planning. I ask myself questions: what do I know about this topic?"

"Then I jot down in Spanish every related idea that comes to me."
(teacher actually performs each action)

"Then I ask myself who will be reading my essay? What do they want to find out? What interests them?" (Chamot & Kupper, 1989, p. 20)

The underlying concept of this method is for students to listen to and understand the thought processes involved in implementing a new strategy. Following the demonstration, teachers should have students begin practicing. Self-evaluation should also be introduced in order for learners to monitor their use of the new strategy. Teachers can assign homework and have students write about their use of the strategy following the task. In-class discussion is also an effective way to emphasize the learning processes of the students. Finally, teachers should reintroduce newly learned strategies as the course moves on. Students may need this repetition to fully acquire the strategy.

How can teachers teach to match learner styles?

Kinsella, K. (1996). Designing group work that supports and enhances diverse classroom work styles. TESOL Journal 1(1), p. 24-30.

Kinsella's (1996) work in this article is mainly concerned with structuring group work according to individual learning styles. This interest came about as students discussed their impressions of collaborative group work. Generally, Kinsella's ESL students did not enjoy group work, especially when they did not understand a certain activity or the ideas they were instructed to discuss. Group work was seen mostly as confusing and as a negative learning experience.

In order to change this experience for her students, Kinsella (1996) decided to work with two types of styles that were useful in enhancing her class group work and participation: Analytical and Relational learning style. Admittedly, her learners' styles were more complex than these two styles however; it helped her understand why some of her students did not enjoy group work.

Analytical learners enjoy working on assignments independently, creating their own goals and must have a clear and convincing explanation for proceeding with group work. On the other hand, relational learners enjoy working with groups, participating in lively, interactive environments and applying newly acquired skills to their personal experiences.

Students were asked to complete the Classroom Work Style Survey to determine which category suited these learners best. Upon completion of the survey, the class discussed the results and was assured that her teaching would seek to accommodate individual learner preferences. Such a balance was made between "classroom grouping strategies, affording equal opportunities to complete tasks alone, in pairs, and in a group" (Kinsella, 1996, p. 29).

By understanding the variations of students' learning and work styles, teachers can more effectively design a curriculum with a wide range of activities that support these differences as well as teach students to be more willing to participate in a variety of group settings. Students also appreciate the validation of their individual learning styles through perceived teacher accommodation.

How can teachers teach learning strategies in the ESL classroom?

Lessard-Clouston, M. (1997). Language learning strategies: An overview for L2 teachers. The Internet TESL Journal [On-line], Available: http //www aitech ac jp/~iteslj/Articles/Lessard-Clouston-Strategy html

Within this article, Lessard-Clouston (1997) sets forth to not only provide an overview of language learning strategies (LLS) and current issues relating, but he is also successful in outlining some practical ways of implementing LLS in the classroom. My report focuses on the latter considerations, as they were both informative and useful for the novice ESL teacher.

When implementing LLS, teachers must become involved in self- as well as student-observation. By observing students, teachers may be able to gain insight into the LLS that their students may already be using. For instance, teachers can ask themselves whether students ask to be corrected or seek clarification. One method for discovering LLS of students may be to provide a questionnaire that asks students to describe their language learning experiences. From this, teachers may gain a better understanding of students' motivations which plays an important role when determining LLS to teach.

LLS training, according to the author, must be integrated within the regular classroom for students to comprehend and appreciate the purpose for strategies. Students also need to learn how to observe and assess their LLS. Through focused LLS input, learners will have the opportunity to improve their language learning and take initiative for their own language learning.

How can teachers teach learning strategies?

Oxford, R. L. (1990). Language learning strategy and assessment training. Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know (pp. 193-212). Massachusetts: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Although this chapter seeks to answer or at least address five different questions related to language learning strategies, I have concentrated on discussing two in particular. "Is it possible to help someone learn how to learn? And, if so, what methods can be used most effectively" (Oxford, 1990, p. 193).

One key component to Oxford's (1990) chapter emphasizes that teaching learner strategies should be kept practical and useful. In particular, strategy training should leave out teaching theories of strategy use. Research suggests that language learners who learn how to learn are more successful. In addition, certain techniques are more effective and beneficial than others.

Oxford (1990) supplies us with three different means for strategy training: awareness, one-time strategy training and long-term strategy training (p. 202). In general, awareness training helps to bring strategy use to the attention of the language learner including how it can help students achieve certain tasks. One-time strategy training involves teaching for a specific language task and in long-term strategy teaching, students learn how to apply certain strategies and monitor the success of their strategies. This type of training covers more strategies and is taught over a longer period of time.

An important step in teaching strategies is to define your learner needs and available time. Teachers should consider student age such as whether their students are children, graduate students, or adults. The level of the students is also important such as advanced, intermediate or beginners. Teachers should also consider student verbal ability and what strategies they believe their learners need to learn.

Oxford (1990) suggests teaching strategies within the context of regular classroom activities, objectives and materials. It is easy for learners to get discouraged when strategies are not linked to a meaningful context. Although integrating strategies in the classroom helps the learner remember, it's also important to show them how to apply similar strategies to new learning tasks.

How can teachers identify different learner styles and strategies?

Oxford, R. L. & Green, J. M. (1996). Language learning histories: Learners and teachers helping each other understand learning styles and strategies. TESOL Journal 1(1), 20-23.

Language learning histories (LLH) are wonderful tools to help teachers identify not only learner styles, but also specific strategies that different learners use in acquiring a second language. Even beyond this benefit, LLH can help learners understand their past learning experiences including the methods of learning and teaching that worked and those that failed. When teachers uncover their students' language experiences, they are able to help students begin learning again with the strategies that are appropriate for their students' particular needs and styles.

In short, LLH are self-reports about past language learning experiences. Students begin the task by brainstorming or answering questions that may spark their memories such as: "How long have you been learning English?", "In your experience, what is the best place to learn a language—in the classroom, the streets, Why?", "Do you like to study with other people or alone(extroverted vs introverted style)?", "What was a really good/bad experience you had in learning English (in a classroom or elsewhere)?", "What strategies did you use at home to study English?" (p. 21).

Students write quick notes about what they can remember and then form pairs to discuss topics. The groups then increase to four people. Within the larger groups, students expound upon their ideas, summarize their experiences and then share them with the entire class. While this is happening, the teacher then takes notes about the summaries on the blackboard. The teacher may then share his/her language learning experience with the class (orally or in writing). This encourages students and gives them a sense that their teacher may be more empathetic toward their language learning difficulties. For homework, students then write about their histories in detail.

How can teachers teach to match learner styles? How can teachers identify different learner styles?

Reid, J. (1996). A learning styles unit for the intermediate ESL/EFL writing classroom. TESOL Journal 1(1), 42-47.

One of the most important aspects of this article is making students aware of "how" they learn. Reid (1996) centers an entire semester of writing around students' preferred learning styles. While students identify their styles of learning through several inventories such as the Perceptual Learning Styles Preference Survey (PLSPS) and the Writing Rituals Survey, they become more aware of how to apply this knowledge to other learning situations. The use of learning styles in a writing environment provides not only content for the class but also a "contextual theme" (p. 42).

Writing skills students develop throughout the course include drafting, paragraph writing, summarizing, note-taking, description, analysis, and use of evidence (Nunan, 1996, p. 43). Some classes have gone even as far as compiling their work in a finished academic essay. Students are also introduced to survey-taking and have the opportunity to write about and discuss their prior language learning experiences. The main objective of the course is to provide students with different learning styles an equal means of learning. Some different styles the lesson addresses include auditory learners (i.e. prefer oral explanations), tactile learners (i.e. prefer hands-on experiences with materials) kinesthetic learners (i.e. TPR, being physically involved), visual learners (i.e. prefer seeing words or pictures). Each activity, although focused on writing, involves all the language skills. Reid (1996) also discusses how learning styles are viewed and valued in different cultures.

Throughout the semester, students maintain learner logs. Learner logs provide useful ways for students to summarize their experiences with learner styles, share their work with small pairs or larger groups and reflect upon what they are learning about themselves as writers and learners. Reid (1996) also held mini-conferences with students to answer questions, give suggestions and to provide students who prefer student-teacher relations to group work an opportunity to learn.

Overall, this course is estimated as a positive learning experience by most students. Toward the end of the class, students have discovered more about themselves and one another, some of the benefits in learning about their preferred way of learning and immense practice writing.

How can teachers teach to match learner styles?

Shaughnessy, M. F. (1998). An interview with Rita Dunn about learning styles. The Clearing House 71(3), 141-145.

This reference discusses the success of teaching according to learner styles. One of the most interesting mentions within this article claims that teachers do not have to adjust their teaching to meet every child's needs individually. Instead, teachers are advised to become familiar with the concept of learning styles and the various implementation strategies. Although other sources believe that students should not be taught the theories behind learner styles, Dunn (1998) suggests that teachers explain to students that everyone learns differently. In doing so, students, especially children, begin to understand that the way they learn is neither good nor bad. In addition, teachers should have resources readily available for teaching their lessons in alternative ways to students with different learning styles. In other words, it is beneficial for the learner to present the same material in more than one way.

In addressing different students' needs, teachers function in two basic ways. One, they teach their students to depend upon their personal learning-style strengths and two, give students practical means to help teach themselves and each other.

Also common among these schools is the process by which children are introduced to learner styles. When new information is presented, children begin learning by themselves, with a peer, with a small group, or with the facilitator for approximately 15 minutes. Following this, teachers then begin presenting the same information using different materials.

In the first instance, students work through what is known as their primary strengths and then in their secondary strengths. These strengths are identified previously through the Dunn, Dunn, and Price Learning Style Inventory. These identified strengths are then transferred to a computer software package known as the Homework Disc that students may access. This Disc then describes to students the methods of studying utilizing their strengths. Each student then has a chance to discover through their own efforts their particular styles and individual learner needs. This information can then be used in a practical, meaningful context (i.e., the language classroom).

How can teachers identify different learner styles?

Stern, H. H. (1975). What can we learn from the good language learner? Canadian Modern Language Review 31(14), 304-318.

This paper was particularly useful in helping me define those who are considered to be good language learners and why. By focusing on the good language learner, we can begin to see the shortcomings of the problem learner and aid them in improving their approach to language learning.

Again, it is emphasized that good language learners are not usually aware of the strategies they use for their success. There has been debate as to whether we should teach the language learner a systematic and calculated approach to learning the language or whether we should teach them a more intuitive approach. As outlined in this publication, it is important to know that although good language learners differ in their preference for techniques/strategies, a good language learner will find his/her own preferred strategy to ensure efficiency and effectiveness in the learning situation.

In contrast, the poor language learner usually has very little, if any, perception concerning his/her successes or failures of language learning. Study habits of the poor language learner are also less developed than the good language learner.

Among the techniques used for studying by the good language learner, there are memorization, revision, note taking, and spacing learning tasks. Other ways the good language learner achieves his/her goals is through task-based activities such as "how to find, sort, analyze, synthesize, classify, and retrieve linguistic data" (Stern, 1975, p. 312).

By comparing the good language learner with the poor language learner on various levels, teachers may become more adept at identifying learner problems. In addition, they may be able to help poor language learners adapt their behaviors to more closely resemble their successful counterparts.